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ABSTRACT

This volume is intended to assist providers of services to handicapped youth in helping youth with disabilities to make the transition from school to work, postsecondary education, or other post-school activities. Chapter I is an overview of this discussion and the topic. Chapter II discusses the historical and legislative background of policies to ensure access and protect the rights of persons with disabilities. Chapter III introduces a diagrammatic framework for conceptualizing the student's movement through the service and outcome continuum. The basic principles governing this movement and the interrelationship and comparability of the services are discussed. Chapter IV concerns building of the collaborative team to avoid unnecessary duplication and overlapping services. Chapter V describes issues related to the dynamics of change, including job territories, differences between power and authority, and techniques for starting a dialogue with other professionals. Guidelines are provided for teams and individuals as they approach the task of implementing change. Chapter VI on elements of change describes categories of interagency collaboration, common interagency elements, and present practices/trends in coordination between vocational rehabilitation, special education, and vocational education. Chapter VII offers comments on some additional issues. An annotated bibliography and list of references are appended. (YLB)

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CONTINUUM OF SERVICES: SCHOOL TO WORK

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Report from the Study Group on

CONTINUUM OF SERVICES:
SCHOOL TO WORK

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ELEVENTH INSTITUTE ON REHABILITATION ISSUES

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Institute on Rehabilitation Issues
Prime Study Group II
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Continuum of Services:
School to Work

Sponsor: University of Wisconsin-Stout Research and Training Center

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Special educators were represented by Roseanne Hammes of Maryland and David Stockford from Maine. They very adequately expressed the views of special education as it related to the continuum.

Vocational education and its concerns were voiced by Dennis Tesolowski, Idaho State University, Jim Brown, University of Minnesota, and Gerald Schneck, Mankato State University.

Roger Livingston, University of Cincinnati contributed to the focus on job placement as an outcome of the continuum. Sally Patton from Howard Russell Associates in Massachusetts furnished the study group with the latest information concerning a variety of outstanding linkage programs currently in operation throughout the United States. Fredrick Menz and Paul McCray from the University of Wisconsin-Stout provided information regarding vocational evaluation and its place in the development of appropriate programs for students with disabilities.

Finally, Marvin Taylor from Woodrow Wilson Rehabilitation Center, Fisherville, Virginia, brought to the group his experience in serving the student with disability in a rehabilitation setting.

The discussions between the members of the group were spirited and instructive. It is hoped that by sharing the results of our

discussions, students with disabilities will be better prepared to meet the challenge of living independently and that professionals from all disciplines will work more effectively to that end.

It was the study group's conviction that by working together and sharing their resources, a solid continuum of services could be developed to meet the needs of the student with disability.

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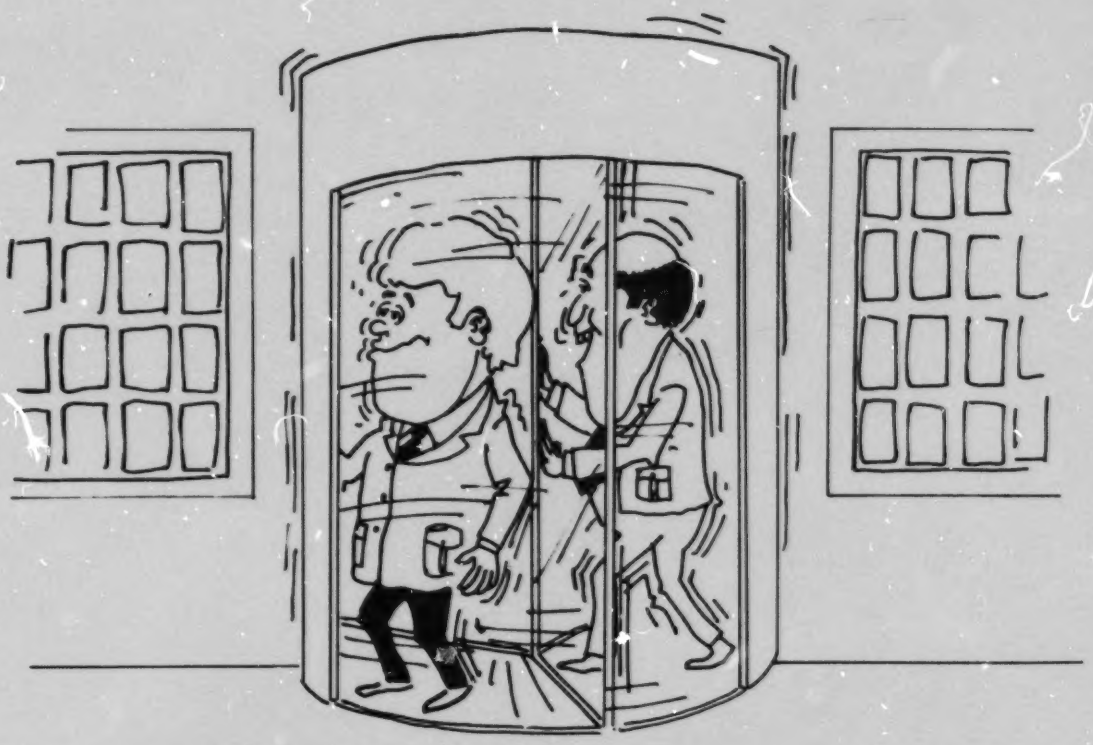
Chapter 1

OVERVIEW

"Unending Continuum"



CHAPTER I

OVERVIEW

INTRODUCTION

Audience

The following discussion is directed to providers of services to handicapped youth: including special educators, vocational educators, and educational administrators; vocational rehabilitation counselors, administrators, and rehabilitation facility personnel; legislators; independent living leadership; voluntary agency personnel, parents, and consumers.

Background

Preparation of students with disabilities for life beyond the educational system is a great concern today in American society. During the 1970's, legislation was passed and implemented affecting the fields of special education (P.L. 94-142), vocational education (P.L. 94-482), vocational rehabilitation (P.L. 93-112), and career education (P.L. 95-207). The result was an increased emphasis on the preparation of youth with disabilities for an adult life. In each case the focus was on assisting these students to expand individual potential for inclusion in, rather than exclusion from, our society.

Transition into the world of work presents problems for all young people. The period of transition, however, is often more difficult for young people with disabilities (McCarthy, 1983). Their problems may require a unique set of intervention strategies within a continuum of support services.

Purpose

The purpose of this discussion is to help youth with disabilities to make the transition from school to work, postsecondary education, or other post school activities. Transition, in this volume, will be focused primarily on vocational activity. It is recognized that a variety of other issues surround the completion of school. Among these issues are the considerations of independent living and assumption of all the responsibilities associated with adulthood. Although these nonvocational activities are intertwined within the transition process, they will not be dealt with in this particular discussion.

Transition from school to work or postsecondary education is a process occurring within an environment of various organizations, individuals, and frames of reference. "The transition from school to working life is an outcome oriented process encompassing a broad

array of services and experiences that lead to employment... The transition from school to work and adult life require sound preparation in the secondary school; adequate support at the point of school leaving; and secure opportunities and services, if needed, in adult situations" (Will, 1984).

This volume examines both the process and its organizational environment. The potentials for interdisciplinary and interorganizational collaboration are explored with particular focus upon the disciplines of vocational rehabilitation, special education, and vocational education.

The cornerstone of this document is an intent to improve transition options for students with disabilities. Networking and collaborative strategies are discussed for the purpose of encouraging an environment which enables each student to develop his or her individual skills, talent and abilities in a manner which will be both beneficial to themselves and to society.

Interdisciplinary and interorganizational collaboration in educational preparation have been discussed for many years. Despite advances in this area, much remains to be done. The following brief list includes some currently recognized needs:

Student Needs

- With 10 percent to 12 percent of the school age population disabled, this group represents only about 2.1 percent of the total vocational education enrollment, and about 70 percent are in segregated classes (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services, 1984).

- Inequities exist in the quality and quantity of vocational education throughout the country particularly for young persons with disabilities (Smith, 1983).

- Youth with disabilities are among the highest unemployed groups in the United States. No one agency has the capability of solving this problem. Therefore, it is imperative that linkages be established.

- Job placement concerns are compounded by young age. Youth lack critical job seeking skills and they have limited or no work experience to carry over into an employment setting. They are dependent upon family income for housing and often lack transportation. Overprotective parents also tops the list of obstacles to integrating youth with disabilities into work (Wehman, 1983).

- Surveys of students reveal their greatest need is for help in the transition from school to work (Michigan Department of Labor, Youth Employment Council, 1981).

Employer Needs

- Employers of youths have emphasized the importance of academic skills in reading, writing, and computation (Youth Task Force Public Hearings, National Commission for Employment Policy, 1979).

- Specific vocational skill training is not viewed as being as critical to the long-term employability of youths as are positive work habits and sound basic interpersonal and work skills. Problem solving skills and adaptability to the work environment are significant employer needs (The Vice President's Task Force on Youth Employment, 1980).

- The employment of youths with disabilties makes good economic sense. "Handicapped people constitute an underutilized human resource of great potential value to employers" (Gopel and Atkins, 1981).

National Needs

- Approximately eight percent of the gross national product is spent each year in disability programs, with most of this amount going to programs that support dependence (White House Working Group on Disability Policy, 1983).

- Of the 16 million noninstitutionalized disabled persons of working age, perhaps 15 million are potentially employable, at a cost saving estimated at $114 billion a year (U.S. Department of Education. Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services, 1984).

- The President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped has estimated that each year approximately 650,000 handicapped young people either graduate from high school or become too old to qualify for public education. Only 21 percent will become fully employed. Forty percent will be underemployed and at the poverty level, and 26 percent will be on welfare. The statistics have potential for disastrous economic and social problems.

- The "A Nation at Risk" and Carnegie reports among others suggest compulsory instruction in "the new basics": four years of English; three years of math, science, and social studies; and a half year of computer science for all students. They recommend that schools should ensure that students achieve a sixth grade competency level in reading, writing, and computation as a minimum by the time they leave school. Many students with special needs cannot meet those standards.

- A public opinion poll conducted by the National Center for Educational Statistics in 1979 revealed that over

85 percent of those polled favored allowing high school juniors and seniors to earn course credit for community work and experiential learning (Policy for Youth Employment and Training in the State of Michigan, Michigan Youth Employment Council, 1981).

- "When we realize that approximately 650,000 youth with disabilities leave the nation's education system either through graduation or termination of eligibility each year, we begin to realize the vocational rehabilitation program is nowhere big enough to serve our handicapped population." Vocational rehabilitation is presently capable of handling one in seven youths with disabilities in need of job placement (Hippolitus, 1980).

Summary

It is critical that all agencies and groups involved with or concerned with youth preparation for the transition into the world of work adopt the following principles:

- Schools must have as a primary mission the preparation of youth for work in a saleable occupational skill area so they may become independent and self-supporting citizens.
- Preparation for work or postsecondary training must be competency based.
- School work experience programs must be supervised to develop and reinforce good work habits.
- Transition to sustained employment is an important outcome of the educational process as well as the rehabilitation process.
- A community-wide view of resources and their allocations available for preparing the transitioning from school to work must be maintained.
- A continuum of necessary support services is best accomplished by networking and team building among community service providers.

FINAL NEEDS

A consistent national policy concerning the transition from school to work for youth with disabilities needs to be established. Specifically, the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services (OSERS) has advocated a national priority on the improvement of the transitional process for all individuals with disabilities. At the same time, the U.S. Department of Education has sought to decrease the Federal Government's influence within education. Increased local

control and authority over the educational process may facilitate or impede the collaboration and coordination of service of educational organizations that have multiple funding sources.

THE VALUE OF WORK . . . YOUTH WITH DISABILITIES

The importance of work for humanity has probably been debated ever since work was distinguished from leisure. Perhaps the single most evident reason for work is to sustain physical life. However, work is clearly central to our lives for other reasons as well. Theologians are interested in work's moral dimensions, and sociologists see work as a determinant of status. Clearly, work responds to something profound and basic in human nature.

To obtain a better definition of work, a comparison can be made with leisure. The "state" of leisure may be defined as a period when a person is involved in an activity that produces or brings about something for self-gratification. In turn, work may then be defined as "an activity that produces something of value for other people" (Work in America, 1973). When this definition is applied to the work of disabled persons, it may be easier to develop an appreciation and understanding of the importance of competitive employment. If our work is of sufficient worth to be of value to others, then it also encompasses our need for food, clothing and shelter.

The economic purposes of work quickly become self-evident and require little additional comment. However, as previously identified, work serves a number of other social purposes. A few of these are:

1. Work is a place for people to meet, converse, and form friendships;

2. Work confers a social status on the worker and the worker's family;

3. Work contributes to self-esteem;

4. Work is a powerful force in shaping a person's sense of identity; and

5. Work enables human beings to impose order or structure to the world.

The specific benefits of work to citizens with disabilities follows the same economic and social benefits as it does with society in general. These benefits include:

1. Competitive employment offers persons with disabilities increased opportunity for wages and benefits. With 59% of the disabled population unemployed (U.S. Department, Federal Register, September 18, 1978), the economic impact of a competitive job for a disabled person may

be as profound for society, in the long run, as it is for the individual worker.

2. The integration of persons with disabilities with their nondisabled peers offers them the opportunity to develop and maintain new social and vocational skills through peer modeling and incidental learning. Additionally, the nondisabled peers expand their own understanding of people with disabilities.

3. Through competitive employment, a disabled person can normalize their life. Work generally is a normal event in a person's life. The opportunity to go to work regularly is a socially equitable activity.

4. Growth and advancement within one's employment can be a motivator to higher levels of performance. Herzberg identifies that these motivational factors as job centered (Herzberg, 1978). For the disabled to have these rewarding experiences, a meaningful (competitive) job is essential.

5. The family and friends of a disabled person will favorably influence and encourage a fuller range of developmental activities as competitive employment lends greater credibility to the disabled person's potential.

6. Educators will become more responsive to the employment potential of students with disabilities.

7. Employers will be in a better position to appreciate all persons, regardless of disabilities, as valuable human resources that can support their need for productivity and profitability.

8. Legislators will strengthen their advocacy for persons with disabilities as they see how society's costs can be lessened and the nation's productivity increased through competitive employment (Wehman, 1981).

The job of placement for youth with disabilities in transition increases in difficulty as the employment market fluctuates and increases in complexity. Perhaps this also increases the importance of seeing that youth with disabilities secure employment. As these young people find their place alongside nondisabled workers, they will have the opportunity to exercise one of the most important components of citizenship. As identified by David Ben-Gurion in Earning a Homeland in 1915:

> The true right to a country - as to anything else - springs not from political or court authority, but from work (Seldes, 1960).

Other Considerations Concerning Work

Competitive employment is an important outcome of education and transition. However, not all educators and rehabilitation providers are prepared to establish this as the ultimate goal for all youths with disabilities. It is understood that the competitive employment goal may diminish the value of other activities for persons who find it difficult or impossible to obtain and sustain unsupported employment. For example, a youth with disability who initially finds placement as an unpaid family worker, in sheltered employment, in an activity center, or in any other supported role may feel that their efforts are lessened through the establishment of competition employment as the only legitimate objective within one's vocational development.

Educators and rehabilitation providers may each have varying personal positions relating to the assumption that competitive employment is the final goal for all youth with disabilities. Their positions may differ according to the potential of the student, the individual's values, family support, availability of school or rehabilitation resources or the skills of the educator or rehabilitation provider. The administrator or trainer seeking to improve or institute a transitional program will need to be sensitive to the possible variances in the staff's attitude toward a goal that establishes competitive employment as the terminal outcome of the educational process.

Competitive Employment

Too often, the discussed value of work for youth with disabilities can be overlooked. Education and rehabilitation practitioners must attempt to answer, on a day-to-day basis, the legislative mandates which direct their educational and service delivery programs. It is extremely important for these workers, to make the assumption that unsubsidized employment is an outcome of education and transition for <u>all</u> Americans.

It seems ironic that it is necessary to emphasize the importance of competitive employment for youth with disabilities. The "so-called normal" population has long been exposed to Maslow's concern that the needs of "human beings" are hierarchical with "self-actualization" taking its place at the apex of the hierarchy (Bolles, 1978). As business, industry and labor organizations have sought to meet the basic needs of our working population, they have, perhaps unintentionally, spurred demands for highly valued estimable and fulfilling jobs. The workers, or professionals, in the field of education and rehabilitation frequently illustrate these hierarchical needs. They can often be seen, within their own careers, in search of "self-actualization." They seemingly have ignored or, at minimum, been inattentive to the same type of "self-actualization" needs of youth with disabilities.

Other social scientists, while addressing our population in general, have discussed other needs of individuals. For instance, Frederick Herzberg focused on the intrinsic and extrinsic factors of work (Donnelly, Gibson & Ivancerich, 1978). Extrinsic factors relate to

the conditions of work, and intrinsic factors relate to the content of work. Further, the extrinsic factors are dissatisfiers for individuals while the intrinsic factors are satisfiers. Satisfaction, then, is a function of the content of work; dissatisfaction, of the environment of work. Linking this to the population in special education and rehabilitation, the relationship can be established that competitive employment focuses more on the content of the job than necessarily its environment. If the content of a job is of sufficient value to demand a sustainable wage, then it could be competitive. As a "satisfier," competitive employment for youth with disabilities, following Herzberg model, has sought to increase worker motivation by including motivational factors in a job. This motivational technique is known as job enrichment:

> Job enrichment seeks to improve both task efficiency and human satisfaction by building into people's jobs, quite specifically, greater scope for personal achievement and recognition, more challenging and responsible work, and more opportunity for individual advancement and growth (Paul, Robertson and Herzberg, 1969).

Fundamental to this concern for job enrichment and its associated benefits is the job itself. Obviously, for a young person with a disability the human satisfaction that Herzberg refers to will come about only through competitive employment.

Just as women, blacks and adults with disabilities have integrated the employment marketplace, youth with disabilities will establish themselves in employment alongside their nondisabled peers.

The quality or value of employment for youth with disabilities can be defined and assessed through the same economic and social measures used by the nondisabled population. The advocacy organization of the Association for Persons with Severe Handicaps (TASH) appropriately stated:

> The quality of employment and related day and vocational services for individuals with...disabilities should be judged by the same criteria used to evaluate the employment of others in our society: income level and the resulting opportunities created by that same income; quality of working life, including integration of the work place, safety, and access to challenging work; and security benefits, including job mobility, advancement opportunities, and protection from lifestyle disruptions due to illness or accident (TASH, 1983).

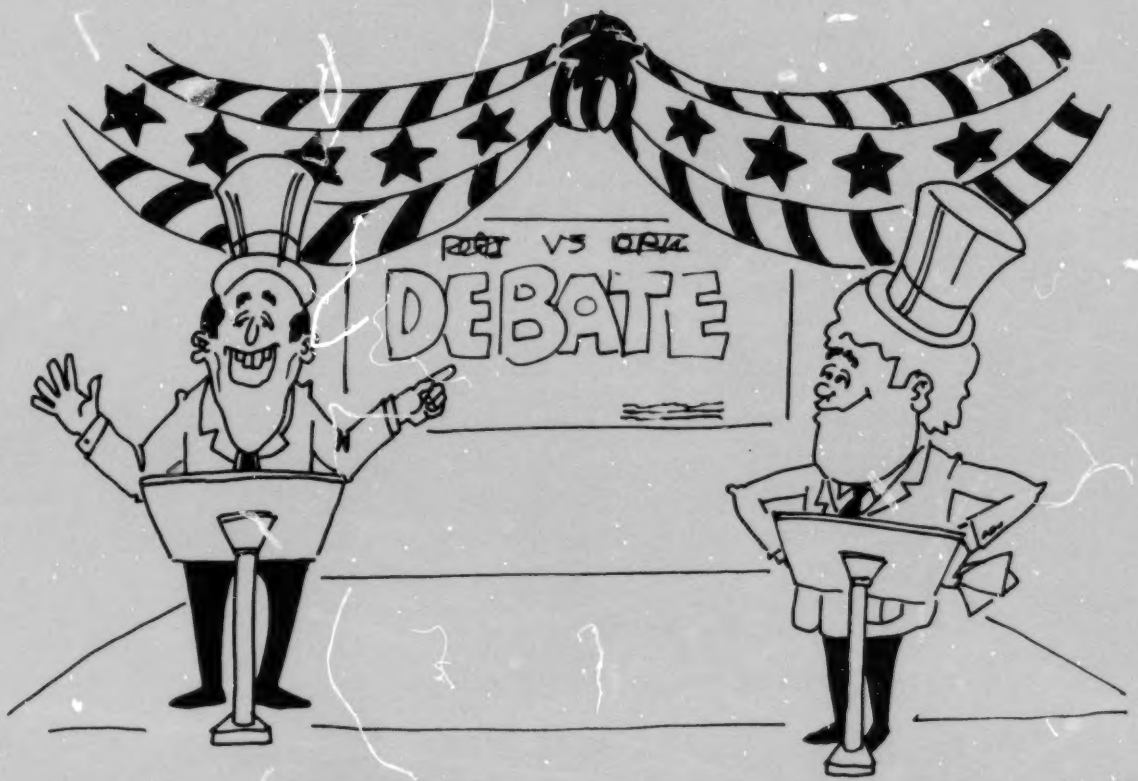
Dr. Paul Wehman (1981) points out that one of his basic tenets is:

> All handicapped persons have a right to work at a competitive wage with nonhandicapped co-workers and a job that provides fulfillment and room for advancement.

The philosophy of this text is not to condemn more restrictive work settings, such as work activity centers and sheltered workshops, but instead suggest that they represent a part of the vocational development continuum that can end in competitive employment.

Chapter 2

HISTORICAL & LEGISLATIVE BACKGROUND



CHAPTER II

HISTORICAL AND LEGISLATIVE BACKGROUND

Throughout the course of history, both written and unwritten policies have been in force, which excluded many persons from participating fully in society. Many of those institutions, which have tremendous importance in enhancing a persons development toward their fullest potential, such as education, work, and participation in acts of citizenship (i.e., voting, running for elective office) have not been accessible, until recently, to many individuals. Exclusions included race, sex, age or presence of a disability. Nearly a decade after passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, several other major legislative measures were introduced to insure that access to these institutions would also be available for those individuals with physical, mental, emotional, and learning problems.

However, as with the Civil Rights movement, actual progress has been slow. Many small steps were made forward, while continuing barriers forced individuals to backup and go another way. Although directed at different federal and state agencies, these legislative mandates strived to meet somewhat comparable goals, ensuring access and protecting the rights of persons with disabilities who were to be served under their guidance. The Education of All Handicapped Children's Act of 1975 (P.L. 94-142, ammended in 1983 by P.L. 98-199, directed at special education); the Education Act Amendments of 1976, Title II (P.L. 94-482, directed at vocational education); and the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (P.L. 93-112, which was later amended by P.L. 93-516 (1974) and P.L. 95-602 (1978), directed at vocational rehabilitation), have all been looked upon as providing a "Bill of Rights" for persons with disabilities and in holding the promise for the provision of meaningful services and access to public and private institutions.

This push towards a career preparation flavor was not wholely from within the educational community, but was also pressed by a national unemployment rate which was higher than at any other time in the previous 35 years (Hoyt, 1975). Youth unemployment was triple that of adults and for nonwhite youths it was typically six times higher. The high school drop-out rate in the United States exceeded 25%. Eighty percent of all secondary school students were enrolled in college preparatory or general curriculum that would prepare them for college entrance rather than jobs. The number of persons enrolled in secondary and postsecondary vocational programs lagged far behind the projected needs for trained workers in many fields. Hoyt (1975) stated that "as a country founded under the philosophy of a work-oriented society, our nation is in deep difficulty" (p. 38). Great Society legislation of the 1960's was enacted which, it was hoped, would resolve these difficulties. These efforts were proven to be insuffi-

cient to fully address the multitude of work and societal problems that faced us as a nation.

Additionally, special concerns for the handicapped were voiced by many and strengthened by the prediction of C. Samuel Barone, United States Office of Education (USOE), Bureau of Education for the Handicapped. Based on an anticipated 2.5 million handicapped youth who were to leave school between 1976 and 1980, it was estimated that:

- 525,000 (21%) would be either fully employed or enrolled in college;
- 1,000,000 (40%) would be underemployed and at the poverty level;
- 200,000 (8%) would be in their home communities and idle much of the time;
- 650,000 (26%) would be unemployed and receiving welfare payments; and
- 75,000 (3%) would be totally dependent and institutionalized (Hoyt, 1976).

The Bureau of Education for the Handicapped in 1976 estimated that less than 25 percent of the handicapped students leaving school were pursuing postsecondary education or were fully employed. At that time, it was predicted that two-thirds of the handicapped population leaving school were either underemployed or unemployed. Frank Bowe (1980), in his book, Rehabilitation America: Independence for the Disabled and the Elderly, states that by the turn of the century, each employed person will be supporting themself and one other who is unable to work, because of age, disability, or lack of education.

The Social Security Administration reports that of those individuals judged totally disabled, 44 percent had an elementary school education or less, 33 percent had a high school education or less, and only 9 percent had any college education.

SPECIFIC LEGISLATION

Career Education

Early efforts, such as the development of a work experience program in the Cincinnati Public Schools in 1908 (Hunter and Zuger, 1979), were aimed at providing students with experiences that would enhance their skills and abilities to make "wise" career decisions. Many of these undertakings, which were not without merit, went somewhat unnoticed until the early 1970's, when the career education movement came into vogue. This so-called, new concept in education received extensive attention from educational theorists, researchers, administrators, classroom teachers, and community members. Many state departments of education and local education agencies developed exemplary

models for career-oriented programs. The career education movement received high visibility during the decade of the 70's. There was significantly increased federal funding for career education programs and strong advocacy from numerous professional organizations. Among these organizations were the National Education Association, the American Vocational Association, and the National Congress of Parent-Teacher Associations (Hoyt, Evans, Mackin, and Mangum, 1974).

The official birth of the career education movement took place on January 23, 1971, when U.S. Office of Education Commissioner, Sidney P. Marland, Jr., delivered an address to the National Association of Secondary School Principles (Bailey and Stadt, 1973). He stated that "all education is career education, or should be... Anything else is dangerous nonsense" (Hoyt, 1975). Almost immediately after this announcement, the U.S. Office of Education, with the assistance of many public and private contractors, moved to popularize this priority and to begin its implementation. Further, rapid growth in legislative authorization for program implementation and funding was readily seen, through passage of Public Law 93-380, the Education Amendments of 1974. This major piece of legislation provided for creation of the Office of Career Education (OCE) and the National Advisory Council for Career Education (Hansen, 1977), whose mandate was to see that state and local plans were designed to ensure that all children have maximum employment and full participation in society according to his or her abilities.

In February, 1974, Hoyt (1975) defined career education in a position paper which later was adopted as the U.S. Office of Education's policy paper in November of the same year. In formulating his definition, Hoyt defined both ,career' and ,education' separately, as a foundation. Career was defined as the totality of work that one does in their lifetime. Others have taken a broader view in keeping with the precepts of developmental theories, in stating that career is all that one becomes involved with throughout their lifetime, work being but one aspect of this activity. Education was defined as the totality of experiences through which one learns. Therefore, a generic definition of career education is the totality of experiences through which one learns about and prepares to engage in work as part of his or her way of living (p. 21). In concept, career education involved a developmental process that begins in the very early years and continues well into retirement, its parameters not bound to the formal educational institutions. Career education was meant to be very broad and encompassing, yet by official policy, it was also meant to be considerably less than all of life or one's reasons for living. The bottom line was that at whatever level a person chose to leave the formal education system, they would be equipped with a saleable job skill (Hoyt, Evans, Mackin, and Mangum, 1974, p. 120).

Support for programming in the late 1970's was eventually granted through passage of Public Law 95-207, the Career Education Incentive Act. Additionally, objectives and funding for programs focused on the preparation of youth for work and life were made part of major pieces of legislation covering special and vocational education, as well. Career education represented an effort to assist all persons,

including the handicapped, minorities and low income, gifted and talented persons, in understanding and capitalizing on the changing relationships between education and work, whether paid or unpaid. Demonstration projects targeting on these special populations were included under both P.L. 93-380 and P.L. 95-207.

Although career education terminology and models eventually faded from the limelight, public and professional interest in providing adequate preparation for the nation's youth to enter into society has not. Nearly two dozen reports have been generated at this time, including a Nation at Risk, addressing the startling outcomes of those who are leaving our education institutions. We find that one out of every four students will drop out before completing their high school education. More than eight million Americans have not finished five years of schooling and more than 20 million have not completed the eighth grade. Almost one million young people will quit school each year, the major reason given being that the schools do not interest them nor is this education perceived to be relevant to what is required of them in employment and life in general.

Jobs for those with less schooling have decreased - a high school education being less than adequate for embarking on many careers. Thousands of persons who are not reflected in the statistics of failure of schools and society, find themselves in dead-end jobs, unable or unwilling to live up to their potential. This portrays a significant loss of human resource, both for the individual and society.

The changing nature of work in a rapidly developing high technology society, presents us with a situation in which more highly qualified employees will be sought. Further, after initial entry into the workplace, the employee and employer will find increased responsibilities for undertaking and providing continuous training opportunities that not only enhance career development, but which will be a necessity to continue in one's field. Life-long upgrading through educational opportunities that are clutched, rather than wasted, will be a necessity - career education's life-long focus will no longer be a concept, but reality.

Legislative History of Vocational Education

Vocational education is the third major problem involved in occupational preparation of the handicapped by public school systems. The federal role in vocational education began in 1917 with the Smith-Hughes Act (P.P.L. 64-347), which authorized funding for vocational training in a limited number of occupations. The George-Barten Act of 1947 significantly increased the level of funding and the range of vocational services offered. However, the Vocational Education Act of 1963 (P.L. 88-120) has been described as a major turning point in the federal relationship with vocational education in the United States (Bailey, 1977). It made vocational education more widely available to members of the general public, removed constraints on the kinds of training which could be provided, and changed the direction of the program from training to fill labor market needs to training to help people obtain employment.

The current federal legislation in vocational education is the Vocational Education Act of 1963 (P.L. 88-210) as amended primarily by the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 (P.L. 90-576) and the Education Amendments of 1976 (P.L. 94-482). The federal commitment to vocational education of the handicapped was reiterated in 1978 by the Commissioner of Education, who noted that a disproportionate number of handicapped compared to nonhandicapped, had not had adequate access to publicly supported vocational education programs. The Commissioner's statement announced that it was the Office of Education's policy to provide such an education to very handicapped persons (Boyer, 1978).

Public Law 94-482, the Education Amendments of 1976, also includes language encouraging vocational education for handicapped students. The state plan for vocational education must interface with that for special education, and procedural safeguards and assurance from P.L. 94-142 are extended to handicapped youths at the secondary level as they participate in vocational education services. Ten percent of the basic grant allocation to the states was set aside to reimburse up to 50 percent of the costs of vocational education of persons with handicapped persons.

Special Education

No strong federal commitment to education for the handicapped existed until the late 1950's. The launching of the first space satellite by the Soviet Union provided motivation for the National Defense Education Act of 1958 (P.L. 85-864). This act implied for the first time that supplemental services ought to be provided for handicapped children within the general educational systems.

In the 1960's, consumer, parent, and professional advocacy groups had a great deal of success on the state level with passage of mandatory education laws for the handicapped. Following the flurry of advocacy group activity, all but two states passed such laws. Also, in the 1960's many states established departments of special education and, in general, provided much increased support for education of the handicapped at the local level.

The Education of the Handicapped Act of 1970 (P.L. 91-230), "to extend programs of assistance for elementary and secondary education," codified into a single law much of the special education legislation that had come before it. Two other pieces of legislation enacted soon thereafter provided additional support for handicapped education. The Higher Education Amendments of 1972 (P.L. 93-238) authorized funding of projects by secondary and higher education facilities to develop programs to help disadvantaged and physically handicapped youths to complete their secondary education. Continuing P.L. 90-538's commitment to improvement of preschool and early childhood education for the handicapped, the Economic Opportunity Act Amendments of 1972 (P.L. 92-242) directed that at least 10 percent of the places in the Headstart Program be available for the handicapped and that special services be provided for their needs. However, because of new attitudes in the late 1960's and early 1970's toward education of handi-

capped children, P.L. 91-230 and other legislation were soon rendered inadequate to meet the needs of that population. These new attitudes were part of the "quiet revolution" in American education (Weintraub & Abeson, 1976). The quiet revolution was a reaction to the fact that only a minority of handicapped children in the United States had ever received the special education services they needed. Many received no education at all. Historically, education officials had not been eager to educate handicapped children in the general educational system. State compulsory attendance laws ironically provided for denial of access to children whose mental or physical handicaps made school attendance "inadvisable" and were sometimes the legal bases for exclusion. Federal law, and the equal protection and due process clauses of the Fifth and Fourteenth Amendments to the Constitution, provided the revolution with an important legal resource of its own (Weintraub & Abeson, 1976).

The first concrete signs of a new commitment to special education by the federal educational structure came in 1971. The Office of Education formally made education of the handicapped one of its priorities, and the Commissioner of Education set as a national goal achievement of full educational opportunity for all handicapped children by 1980 (Martin, cited in Abbas & Sillington, 1976; National Advisory Committee on the Handicapped, 1976). This commitment, as well as the advocacy activity, state legislation, and legal decision at the state and federal levels, influenced Congress to consider legislation which was to give significant new direction to the special education program in the United States.

Public Law 94-142 represented the result of several years of lobbying by supporters of the principle that handicapped children are entitled to a publicly supported appropriate education of quality equal to that afforded nonhandicapped children and was shaped by earlier state and federal laws recognizing this principle. Often called a "Bill of Rights for the Handicapped," it opened with an acknowledgement of the fact that, of the approximately eight million handicapped children in the United States at the time of the Act, more than half were not receiving appropriate educational services. In addition, one million were excluded entirely from the public schools, and many others did not receive an appropriate education because their handicaps were not detected. The Act put responsibility for altering this situation squarely on the state and local education agencies.

Public Law 94-142 made clear that states were expected to achieve the goal for which previous legislation had only required them to plan. Equal education opportunity for handicapped children had become national public policy. Moreover, P.L. 94-142 was given no expiration date, unlike previous federal education legislation. It made a commitment to all handicapped children, not just to those whom it was convenient to educate (Education of the Handicapped Today, 1976; LaVor, 1976).

Specifically, the Act required that for a state to qualify for federal financial assistance for its education program, it had to make publicly supported, appropriate education available to all

handicapped children between ages 3-18 by September, 1978, and to all between ages 3-21 by one year later. P.L. 94-142 embodied several other principles mandating changes in the content of special education services and the manner in which they were delivered. First, there was an educational plan, called the individualized education program (IEP), which was to be developed and put into writing for each child receiving special education services. It was to be specific regarding the child's current education status, the educational goals desired, and the means of reaching them. Second, handicapped and nonhandicapped children were to be educated together to the maximum extent appropriate to provision of a quality education; this is the "least restrictive environment" principle. Third, educational agencies were to continually seek, locate and identify handicapped children to determine whether educational needs were being met. Fourth, in accord with the major reordering of existing priorities by P.L. 94-142, special education services were to be extended first to those receiving no education at all, then to the most severely handicapped within each disability category who were receiving an inadequate education. Fifth, diagnostic tests used to guide educational placement of children were not to be racially or culturally discriminatory. Sixth, each governor was to appoint an advisory panel, which included handicapped persons and parents or guardians of handicapped children, to advise the state agency regarding its efforts to educate the handicapped (Goodman, 1976).

The Education for All Handicapped Children Act required cooperation between special education and other agencies, especially vocational education. As defined in the Act, both "special education" and "appropriate education," which were to be provided by education agencies as needed by handicapped children, could include vocational education services. It was, therefore, expected that vocational educational personnel would participate in development of the IEPs of many handicapped students. The Act's requirement for other services to be provided to handicapped students implied that special education agencies would seek assistance from vocational youth organizations and job placement services, among others. Cooperation between special and vocational education was also encouraged by P.L. 94-142's requirement that all educational activities for handicapped children in a state were to meet the state education agency's standards for such education.

VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION

Legislative History of Vocational Rehabilitation

The initial impetus for the vocational rehabilitation program, in its modern form, came from a concern for rehabilitation of veterans disabled in World War I. It was a concern shared by the federal government and a variety of voluntary organizations. The Soldier Rehabilitation Act of 1918 (P.L. 65-178) provided for vocational rehabilitation services for disabled veterans, delegating responsibility for their vocational training to the Federal Board for Vocational Education in the Office of Education.

Concerns about both the "practicality" of extending vocational rehabilitation services to civilians and the responsibility of the federal government for rehabilitation of the disabled restricted services authorized by P.L. 65-178 to veterans. However, the National Civilian Vocational Rehabilitation Acts of 1920, or Smith-Fess Act (P.L. 66-236) soon became law "for the promotion of vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry and otherwise" (LaVor, 1976). The Federal Board for Vocational Education was also given responsibility for administration of this Act, which was actually the beginning of the federal/state vocational rehabilitation program.

The importance of cooperation between the vocational rehabilitation program and other agencies was emphasized from the beginning. Since funds under P.L. 66-236 were limited and could be spent only for a limited variety of services, state vocational rehabilitation agencies were encouraged to cooperate with state and local, public and private nonprofit organizations to obtain for clients such services as maintenance funds, medical treatment, and prostheses. P.L. 66-236 required the development of cooperative agreements between state vocational rehabilitation agencies and workmen's compensation agencies, where they existed; further, the Act allowed the Federal Board for Vocational Education to count as matching funds, for federal vocational rehabilitation monies, certain expenditures of other agencies in approved cooperative arrangements with vocational rehabilitation agencies (Turem, Barry, Gutowski, Koshell, LaRocca & MacIntosh, 1977).

Legislation and other federal action between the world wars directly affected the program without altering it structurally. The Wagner-Peyser Act of 1933, which established the federal-state employment service system, required cooperation between the vocational rehabilitation and employment service agencies in job placement of the disabled. Also in 1933, funds were made available through the Federal Emergency Relief Administration for vocational rehabilitation of disabled persons who were on or eligible for relief; the vocational rehabilitation agencies were to administer these funds in cooperation with relief agencies. The Social Security Act of 1935 (P.L. 74-271) authorized annual funding for costs of administration of the vocational rehabilitation program and provided for cooperation at the state level between vocational rehabilitation and crippled children's programs (Baumheier, et al., 1976). The Vocational Rehabilitation Act Amendments of 1943, or Barden-LaFollette Act (P.L. 78-113), considerably broadened the scope of the program. P.L. 78-113 superseded the original National Civilian Vocational Rehabilitation Act as it has been amended and otherwise altered through 1942. In addition, authorized funding levels were increased significantly. Funds could be provided by state vocational rehabilitation agencies to provide clients with any services necessary to prepare them for employment.

There were eight amendments to P.L. 78-113 between 1943 and 1970. The 1954 Amendments reaffirmed past legislative requirements and encouraged cooperation between vocational rehabilitation and other programs. The similar benefits requirement was continued, and several federal and state programs with which vocational rehabilitation was

encouraged to cooperate were specified. Included was, public assistance and public employment agencies.

The 1965 Amendments increased the range of services available by authorizing extended evaluations for up to 18 months for clients with certain disabilities.

Provisions in the 1965 Amendments also made it easier for vocational rehabilitation agencies to use local funds and to expand services at the community level by wavering the requirement that efforts be state-wide. This waiver led to a variety of cooperative agreements between vocational rehabilitation agencies and local public agencies, including public school systems, special schools, and public health and mental health agencies (Baumheier, et al., 1976).

The 1965 Amendments also mandated state-wide planning of sheltered workshops and other rehabilitation facilities by state vocational rehabilitation agencies. It increased federal funds available for these agencies to purchase rehabilitation services from sheltered workshops, and established a technical assistance program designed to improve them (Report from the Study Group on Rehabilitation of the Severely Disabled, 1973; Whitehead, 1977).

The three year legislative process leading to P.L. 93-112 involved a much more thorough examination than the program had received in the past. The Rehabilitation Act of 1973 and its subsequent amendments constitute the enabling and mandating legislation for the vocational rehabilitation program in its present form. P.L. 93-112 contained certain provisions which radically changed the program in a variety of ways. The Act extended the federal-state grant program for funding of vocational rehabilitation programs, assuring basic continuity with the program which has existed since the National Civilian Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1920. The focus of the program's efforts was to be redirected from rehabilitation of the relatively less disabled to those whose disabilities were more severe, including those who might not benefit from preparation for employment. The profound change in emphasis was indicated in several places in the Act, including the preamble and the declaration of the Act's purpose, the definitions section, the discussion of state plans, and the provisions for the individualized written rehabilitation program. State agencies were required to specify the methods by which vocational rehabilitation services would be extended to the severely disabled population. A study was authorized to find ways to provide rehabilitation services to persons whose disabilities precluded establishment of vocational goals but who might be helped to live more independently (Bailey, 1977; U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1975).

The Act required development of an Individualized Written Rehabilitation Program (IWRP) for each handicapped person served. The IWRP contained the terms under which services were to be provided, including the long-range and intermediate goals to be achieved, the services needed to reach the goals, and the rights of the persons involved. The IWRP was to be developed jointly by the vocational rehabilitation counselor and the client, or a parent or guardian if appropriate.

The client's IWRP was to be reviewed annually (U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare 1975). Another important part of the Act, and another new feature for vocational rehabilitation legislation, was the title containing several sections dealing with employment and other rights of handicapped persons. These provisions have since been hailed as the major civil rights legislation for the handicapped, provisions "intended to usher in a new era of equality for our . . . handicapped citizens: (Halloran, et al, 1978). The final regulations for this title were signed in 1977, over four years after enactment of P.L. 93-112.

Many of the provisions of P.L. 93-112 dealt directly with or had implications for relationships between vocational rehabilitation and other state and local agencies. First, the Act continued the requirement of past legislation that vocational rehabilitation work cooperatively with other programs. It added new emphasis to the similar benefits principle, requiring that resources of other agencies be used to serve clients before vocational rehabilitation funds are expended. Second, state vocational rehabilitation agencies were permitted to continue increasing the amount of state funds available for federal matching by counting certain costs of other state and local agencies as vocational rehabilitation expenditures. This was the "third-party funding" provision first allowed in P.L. 66-236, the original legislation for the program. Third, the state vocational rehabilitation agency was also permitted by P.L. 93-112 to submit a consolidated plan which included the state's vocational rehabilitation plan as well as its program for persons with developmental disabilities under the Developmental Disabilities Services and Facilities Construction Act of 1970 (P.L. 91-517). In another provision related to cooperative relationships, vocational rehabilitation agencies were authorized to make grants to public or private nonprofit agencies for certain purposes.

Public Law 93-112 was again altered significantly in 1978 by the Rehabilitation, Comprehensive Services, and Developmental Disabilities Amendments (P.L. 95-602). The 1978 Amendments, in a "major new program" of services (Vervillee, 1978), placed much greater emphasis on providing rehabilitation services to those whose disabilities were too severe for them to be employed but who might benefit from such services as would allow them to live and function independently. A wide variety of such "comprehensive" services for independent living were authorized.

With a view to broaden interagency coordination of federal policy toward the handicapped, the 1978 Amendments established a National Council on the Handicapped to review and make recommendations about the activities of RSA and all other policies, programs, and activities concerned with the handicapped which involve federal funds or direction. Among these duties, the National Council was to review the activities of the National Institute of Handicapped Research. Moreover, P.L. 95-602 specified that the state plan include provision for establishment of cooperative relationships among vocational rehabilitation, special education, and vocational education (E.M.C. Institute, 1978; Verville, 1978).

Cooperative Initiatives

In keeping with these legislative enactments, in November 1978, the Commissioners of Education and Rehabilitation issued a joint memorandum to the states establishing a task force to develop further guidelines for collaborative planning and service delivery. As a result of this memorandum, a National Special Education-Vocational Rehabilitation Workshop was convened on Cooperative Planning for the Handicapped. The memorandum and workshop provided the stimulus for state agencies to follow the federal guidelines.

The majority of state level efforts toward interagency cooperation between education and vocational rehabilitation have focused on the development of formal interagency agreements. These efforts appear to be a direct outgrowth of the 1978 Joint Memorandum. By 1981 all but eight states had an agreement in effect or under development. The great majority of these agreements were initiated in 1979 or 1980.

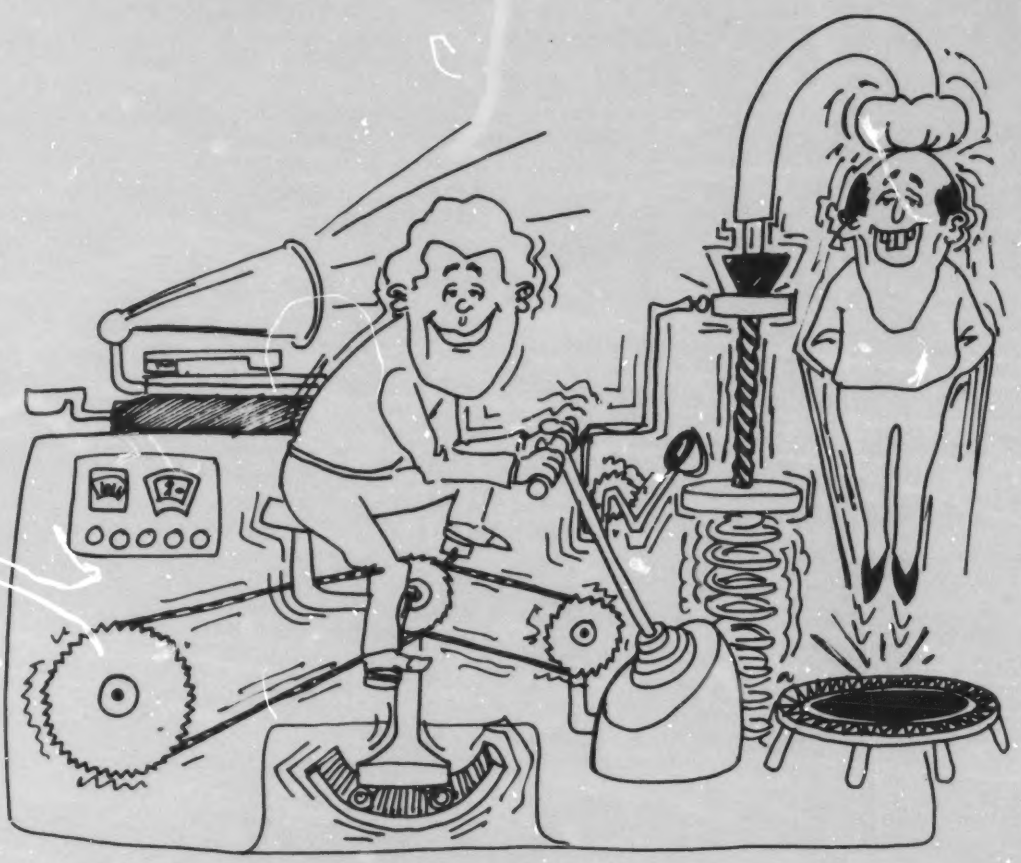
Most states followed a similar pattern in developing their agreements. A state level interagency committee was formed and given responsibility for drafting and implementing the agreement. Most agreements cover issues such as identification, assessment, and program development in a general way. Specific strategies for collaboration include:

- joint plans for development and implementation of IEP's and IWRP's
- joint consultation in developing state plans
- development and operation of inservice training
- joint operation of special programs and special schools

A major unanswered question regarding state level activities is the extent to which they have influenced local coordination efforts. Most state agreements include a provision for state-local linkage and many specifically encourage local inservice training. However, only one third of the states had actually assigned staff for local inservice training.

Chapter 3

THE PROCESS



CHAPTER III

THE PROCESS

VOCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES

Introduction

The goal of all the processes mentioned in this document is to enable each student to achieve the maximum possible vocational independence and to facilitate to the greatest possible extent the individual's full participation in the mainstream of society. This concept is illustrated in the accompanying diagram, Figure 1, "Vocational Development of Students with Disabilities."

This section introduces a diagrammatic framework for conceptualizing the student's movement through the service and outcome continuum. The basic principles governing this movement and the interrelation and comparability of the services will be discussed.

The Service-Outcome Continuum

Ideally, a full range of options should be available in each community to accommodate the particular support needs of individuals with disabilities at all stages of their vocational development. Unfortunately, only parts of the continuum exist in many localities. The 1984 OSERS's Transition Initiative endeavors to address this situation through the increase of options on the outcome continuum. (Will, 1984).

The concept of a continuum implies the existence or possibility of many options along the way, each with varying levels of support. Implicit within the continuum concept is also the individuality of people and their vocational outcomes. For example, what may represent a terminal outcome for one student may be a transitional service for another.

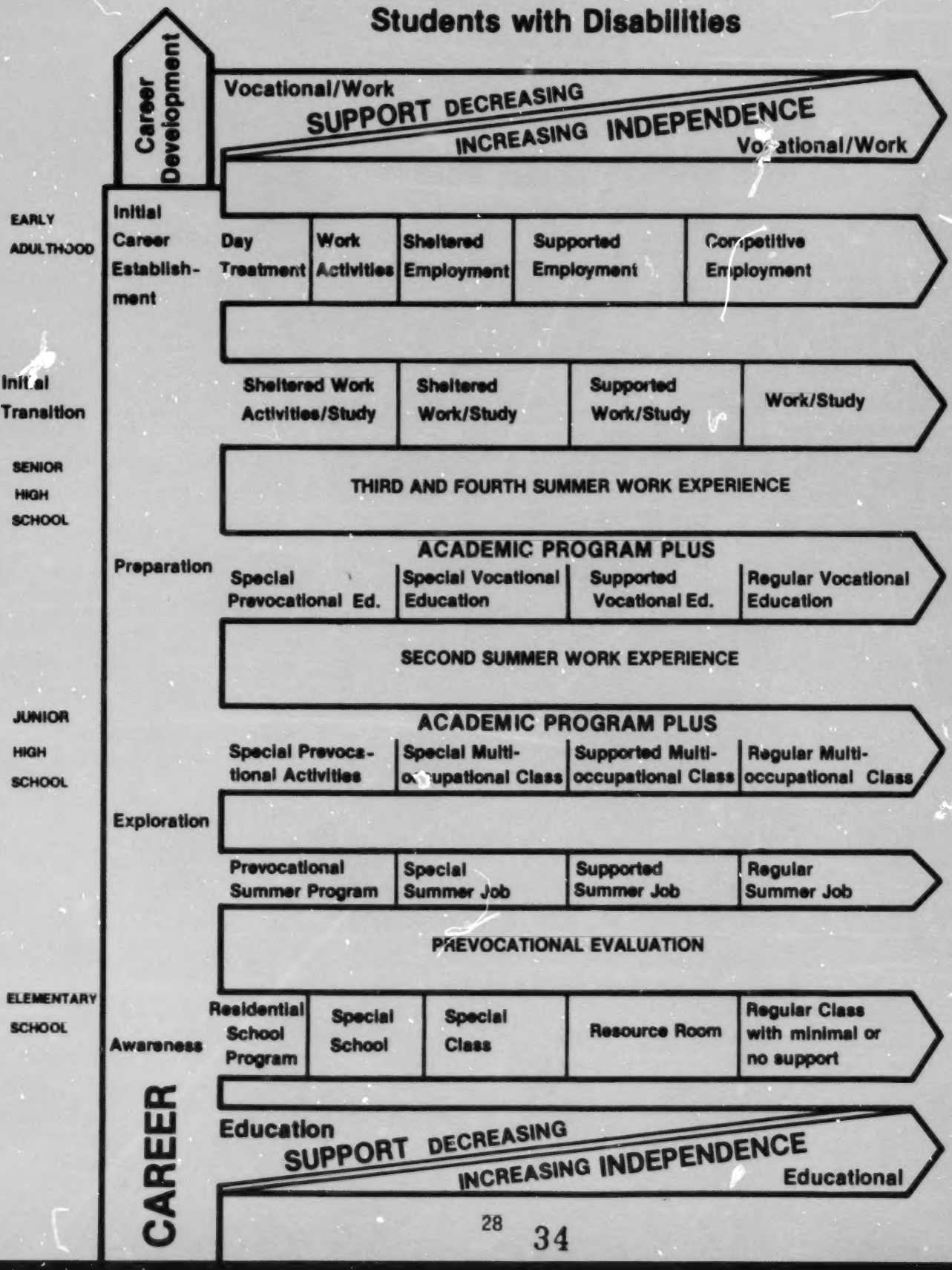
Movement Through the Service-Outcome Continuum

Movement through the continuum is governed by four principles:

1. Least restrictive environment (horizontal movement).
2. Vocational development (vertical movement).
3. System reinforcers and impediments.
4. Appropriate assessment is part of any programmatic movement.

Figure 1:

Vocational Development of Students with Disabilities



Least Restrictive Environment

The regulations of P.L. 94-142 mandate in education the least restrictive environment. Each public agency shall insure:

1. To the maximum extent appropriate, handicapped children, including children in public or private institutions or other care facilities, are educated with children who are not handicapped, and

2. That special classes, separate schooling or other removal of handicapped children from the regular educational environment occurs only when the nature or severity of the handicap is such that education in regular classes with the use of supplementary aids and services cannot be achieved satisfactorily (Federal Register, 1977, 121a 550(5).

This concept is also applicable to vocational outcomes especially when one considers the problem of generalization. Training, if it is to be most effective, needs to be provided in the environment where the behavior is ultimately expected to be performed (Pomerantz & Marholin, 1980; Wehman, 1981, 1983). Using this concept, training in the real work environment would seem to be a preferred technique. Such integration in the real work environment also provides the following benefits: 1) opportunities for integration and socialization with coworkers and supervisors without disabilities; 2) normal role-modeling opportunities; and 3) an opportunity for employers and the community as a whole to realize the work potential and ability of persons with disabilities (Seely & Szymanski, 1983; The University of the State of New York, 1983).

The diagrammatic representation of vocational development does not represent the ideal but rather some of what exists at this time. Progress towards the ideal will probably bring earlier career preparation and more training in real work environments (Wehman, 1983; Will, 1984: OSERS, 1984).

Supported Employment

There are many definitions of supportive employment. However, for the purpose of this document, supported employment is defined as paid work experience in business, industry and government, supported by those services necessary to maintain the individual's involvement and productivity in that work environment. Such supportive services may include additional supervision, training, transportation, attendant services, and a wide variety of other services. These support services may also be directed toward the employer to assist them in the utilization of persons with disabilities into the work force.

System Reinforcers and Impediments

These factors not only affect the movement through the continuum,

but also the very existence of options within the continuum. Some examples are:

1. Supplemental Security Income (SSI) enables many individuals to lead more independent lives. However, the very real possibility of losing benefits, especially medical benefits, prevents some individuals from working.

2. Program initiative and reinforcements can have the effect of increasing options, enhancing choice of a particular option. The current OSERS program initiative should have the effect of increasing the use of supported employment programs as a viable outcome option for persons with moderate and severe disabilities.

Summary

The continuum concept presented in this section offers a framework for viewing the vocational development of persons with disabilities from the school years through early adulthood. At all stages in the person's development, there is an emphasis on increasing independence and community integration and decreasing support services. Movement on the continuum is flexible and governed by the individual's specific needs. Although only broad program areas are shown and discussed, possibilities within those areas must be numerous and varied to accommodate individual needs.

ROLES IN THE CONTINUUM

It is evident that many work age persons with disabilities are not successfully making the transition from school to employment. A substantial reduction of the high unemployment rate for young working age persons with disabilities can only be accomplished by close cooperative programming among the professions of special education, vocational education, and vocational rehabilitation. It is the purpose of this section to define the roles of these disciplines, discuss the role of the family, and identify the benefits which result from effective transitional programming.

Service Roles of Education and Vocational Rehabilitation

The continuum of services, described in Figure 1, establishes the vocational preparation process which should be followed by adolescents and young adults with disabilities. The common threads which run throughout this continuum are:

1. Preparation for and retention of employment is the primary goal of the process.

2. The services focus on support of the student with a disability and their family.

The professional disciplines which provide the services are involved to varying degrees at various stages in the continuum. For example, the location of responsibility for coordinating needed services shifts from special education to vocational rehabilitation as the student with a disability moves closer to the actual shift from school to employment.

The key to success, in this needed interdisciplinary cooperation, is a common support for the employment based goal of services. There should be a mutual understanding that no one discipline has the resources or singular responsibility for the vocational preparation of students with a disability. Table 1 is a summary of the roles of special education, vocational education, and vocational rehabilitation in the vocational continuum. Limiting this presentation to the roles of these three disciplines is not intended to negate or minimize the important roles of disciplines such as regular classroom teachers, therapists, and other adjunct service providers.

The service roles summarized in Table 1 are based primarily on enabling legislation and regulations for special education, vocational education and vocational rehabilitation. At the individual community level, there is wide variation in the skills, staff, and resources possessed by each discipline to actually fulfill the noted service roles. Consequently, effective transitional programming is marked by each discipline drawing on the knowledge of the other professions. For example, vocational educators will not necessarily be experienced in adapting core education curriculum to the unique training requirements of persons with a variety of disabling conditions and resulting functional limitations. Special educators can assist vocational educators in breaking down required tasks into component steps and in adapting class activities so that students with disabilities can fully participate. Vocational rehabilitation staff can identify to special educators the focus of the local labor market and advise on structuring longitudinally sound career exploration and early work experience programs. Vocational educators can build on their system of employer advice and support to in-school vocational training areas by involving the rehabilitation counselor in formal and informal meetings of employer advisory groups. Members of each profession have training, experiences and skills specific to their discipline which, when shared cooperatively, can significantly enhance education and rehabilitation programming.

As presented in Table 1, there are overlaps among a number of services which can be provided by each of the three disciplines. However, this overlap does not necessarily lead to a duplication of services. For example, in the areas of training and employment services, a student with a less severe disability could possibly participate successfully in training provided through the vocational educational program with minimal support from special education or vocational rehabilitation. As this student enters the employment market, the trade and work related skills developed through vocational education and parental support could enable the transition from school to work without substantial assistance from other disciplines. Or the other hand, a student with a severe disability could well require

TABLE 1

SERVICE ROLES

Vocational Preparation of Students with Disabilities

The services below are generally provided by the specified discipline. Where there is an overlapping or duplication of services, the question of WHO INITIATES SERVICES and WHO IMPLEMENTS SERVICES will be resolved at the local education level, preferably during the development of the Individualized Education Plan (IEP) and the Individualized Written Rehabilitation Program (IWRP).

Continuum of Services	Provided by SPECIAL EDUCATION	Provided by VOCATIONAL EDUCATION	Provided by VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION
A. IDENTIFICATION OF STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES	• Awareness • Screening • Referral to Assessment	• Awareness • Referral to Assessment	• Early Intervention • Screening • Referral to Assessment
B. ASSESSMENT (Assessment is actually on-going because of the developmental nature of the population)	• Educational Data • Psychological/Behavior • Vocational • Aptitude/Interest	• Pre-Vocational Exploration Program • Identification of competencies needed for vocations*	(Formal) • Current General Health Status and Special Examination • Vocational Evaluation a. Preliminary Diagnostic Study b. Thorough Diagnostic Study to determine nature and scope of services. (Vocational goals-strengths, functional limitations.) c. Identification of accommodations/adaptions needed by students to participate in vocational programming
C. INDIVIDUALIZED PROGRAM PLANNING	• Individualized Educational Program (IEP) • Consultation with student/parent	• Instructional Implementation Plan (IIP) (Secondary students only) • Consultation with student/parent • Participation in IEP and IWRP development	• Individualized Written Rehabilitation Plan (IWRP) for all eligible students/clients. Developed jointly by client and counselor if appropriate by guardian with joint staffing with appropriate school personnel. (The services, objectives and goals included in the IWRP and IIP should be complementary.)

Continuum of Services	Provided by SPECIAL EDUCATION	Provided by VOCATIONAL EDUCATION	Provided by VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION
D. PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION AND TRAINING ACTIVITIES	• Career education • Pre-vocational education • Formal vocational assessment • Vocational education • Resource support to regular classroom teachers • work experience/work study	• Regular vocational education • Modified regular vocational education • Special vocational education • Career education • Pre-vocational education	• Regular vocational education/ work adjustment (O.J.T. selective training experience, co op and related programs) • Adaptive regular (specially designed vocational education/ work adjustment) • Work experience • On-going vocational assessment services • Special (separate) vocational education/work adjustment • Vocational and other training including personal and vocational adj., books, tools and other training materials. All on individual needs basis to eligible clients
E. SERVICE DELIVERY SYSTEM including related services	• Interpreter/notetaker • Reader services for the blind • Special tools, devices, equipment (student-loaned) • Instructional modifications • Special support staff (aides, tutors and paraprofessionals) • Related services (OT, PT and speech correction) • Curriculum modification and development • Special transportation needs • Monitoring services and student progress • Vocational guidance and counseling • Related services (other than diagnostic)	• Interpreter/notetaker • Reader services for the blind • Special tools, devices, equipment (student-loaned • Instructional modifications • Special support staff (aides, tutors and paraprofessionals) • Related services (teacher aides) • Curriculum modification and development • Monitoring services and student progress • Vocational guidance and counseling • Cooperative Education Programs (OJT) • Employer curriculum review committees	• Vocational guidance and counseling • General medical-coordination of services if needed to vocationally prepare for job placment • a. Assist in locating training stations b. Modify work environment c. Adaptive appliances d. Reimourse employers for training costs (OJT) • Physical and mental restoration • Additional services provided as appropriate • On-the-job training

Continuum of Services	Provided by SPECIAL EDUCATION	Provided by VOCATIONAL EDUCATION	Provided by VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION
F. EMPLOYMENT SERVICES	• Work experience/work study • Job development, placment and follow-up	• Work experience/work • Job development, placment, and follow-up	• Pre-planning services a. Job seeking skills b. Counseling c. Job/client match/Job analysis • Job Placement a. Job development b. Job modification c. Employer/co-worker education • Job Maintenance a. Job site training/advocacy b. Family support c. Employer follow-up
G. ARCHITECTURAL BARRIER REMOVAL	• Job training site accommodations	• Vocational school accommodations	• Individual/home accommodations • Job training site accommodations

a coordinated training and employment plan among the three disciplines that would anticipate needed support well beyond the completion of the program offered through the local education authority. For this student, the training and employment service resources of each discipline might be needed at various stages. The key to successfully utilizing the resources and services of each discipline is a coordinated team effort which has an outcome-oriented focus on employment. (See Appendix A for one state's interagency agreement with the framework of Table 1.)

Within the identified continuum of services, there are a number of key steps as students with disabilities move toward entering the labor market. These key steps are:

1. Early educational preparation which provides students with the basic core skills required for them to develop their vocational potential;

2. Career exploration and awareness activities during pre and early adolescence which effectively frame a positive and realistic concept of the world of work for the student;

3. A series of formal and informal instructional plans such as the Individual Educational Program (IEP) and the Individual Written Rehabilitation Program (IWRP). These plans are outcome oriented, built on evaluation of need and potential, and which consistently complement each other in planning for desired outcomes;

4. Work adjustment, vocational training, and work experiences which are integrated with nondisabled peers and which where possible, utilize community based work settings; and

5. A systematic approach to building an understanding of the support required, whether it be minimal or extensive over time, for the student with a disability to enter and remain in the labor market and to function at their potential level of independence in the community.

For these key steps to be accomplished, students with disabilities and their families will depend heavily on interdisciplinary cooperation. Later sections of this book will discuss formal team building strategies and methods for assuring that this cooperation among the various disciplines takes place.

Parents and Family Role

The support provided to families and by families is a critical component of a successful program for a student. This support should be viewed from two perspectives: First, families are critical members of the education and habilitation team during transitional programming from the early planning efforts through employment and follow-up;

and second, families require support as they aid their disabled family member in coping with the complex personal, social, and financial demands of adult life. A brief discussion of each perspective follows.

Support Provided by Families

The experiential information available from parents about their son's or daughter's life at home is critical to the planning necessary for transitional programming. The educational development of youth with severe disabilities necessitates a comprehensive approach involving families and educational staff. The amount of time available at home for developmental activities far exceeds that of educational staff persons. Critical to any vocational setting will be the functional behaviors of the student. Parents and other family members are in an excellent position to develop and enhance those functional behaviors of youth with disabilites that are especially applicable to work. In essence, the parents and other siblings become a part of a teaching team. They can insure that as appropriate behaviors develop, a degree of consistency can be maintained between the home, school, and the work place.

Support Provided to Families

An effective employment oriented transitioned program will result in the person with a disability entering into competitive level employment. However, for many young adults with disabilities and their families, the need for support is not limited to successfully finding that first job. This job will ease the financial and social burden of entering adult life, but for many families support services and information will be an on-going need. The adult service system is complex. Transitional programming, which anticipates this complexity by both helping families understand that system and also supporting them in the use of the system, will have the best chance for long-term positive impact.

In summary, in transitional programming, the family provides:

1. An important complement and supplement to training efforts designed to develop employable skills, attitudes and behaviors among adolescents and young adults with disabilities;

2. A potential role model and support group for other families who are skeptical of the work potential of their disabled member or are fearful of the quickly approaching demands of adult life; and

3. The basis of extended support for the young adult with a disability entering the complex world of adult society.

Effective programming will incorporate both the support that can be provided by families and the support families require during the transition period.

The Benefits of Cooperative Transitional Programming

The primary benefits realized from effective transitional programming are: 1) the student with a disability successfully enters the employment market; and 2) the student and their family understand how to access services in the adult service system. Their are numerous benefits realized through cooperative transitional programming by students, their families, and practitioners. These benefits accrue directly from a goal oriented team approach to transitional programming. Table 2 lists a number of these benefits.

Summary

The potential service roles described in this chapter are general to the discipline of vocational education, special education, and vocational rehabilitation. The service descriptions are based on legislation, regulations, and to a large extent, programmatic applications of transitional service models. On a state-to-state and on a local basis, there are substantial differences in how managers and practitioners within these disciplines interpret and apply their service roles.

Although the application of the service roles differs, the common threads which run through all effective transitional programming are an understanding of how each discipline interprets their role, a fully realized team orientation to service and support, and a consistent focus on the person with a disability, their family and the desired outcomes to the transitional process.

TABLE 2

BENEFITS OF COOPERATIVE TRANSITIONAL PROGRAMMING

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION	SPECIAL EDUCATION	VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION	STUDENT AND FAMILY
Consultation regarding accommodations and adaptations which are needed for disabled students to develop potential competency.	Consultation regarding the requirements and possibilities of employment in the community.	Higher acceptance rehabilitation rate due to early involvement with students.	Coordinated program which eases the transition from school to work and results in employment for the student with a disability.
Consultation regarding the vocational implication of specific disabling conditions.	Consultation regarding labor market trends.	Opportunity for input into a system which prepares clients for the world of work.	Knowing the vocational rehabilitation counselor long before the completion of school.
Job placement assistance.	Feedback regarding previous students' vocational progress.	A chance to increase ones impact on the employability of persons with disabilities through participation as a team member in a larger system.	Team approach to vocational planning and preparation, thus providing more options.
Consultation on labor market trends.	Something positive to offer students in terms of planning for the future.	An opportunity to utilize the resources of other disciplines in total rehabilitation.	Increased probability of appropriate training or employment upon completion of school.
Assistance in recruiting employer consultant committee members as well as in making effective use of such members.	More realistic preparation of students for the world of work.	A larger support base for program development.	Potentially more relevant vocational training in terms of the labor market trends and the vocational limitations of the student.
Consultation regarding specific problems in the vocational preparation of students with a disability.	Bridge from school to work for special education students.	Opportunity for early intervention and thus greater success rates.	Knowledge that they will not be alone in attempting to achieve vocational programming or job placement upon completion of school.
Bridge for the students from the completion of the skilled training in vocational education to the world of work.	Curriculum enrichment.	Opportunity to have input into curriculum development and planning which will affect the vocational readiness of future clients.	Possibility of summer employment which will enhance and complement the vocational education received through the school system and thus better prepare the student for work.
Follow-up students upon their completion of the vocational education program and their job placement.	Consultation on the vocational and educational implications of disabilities.	Availability of resources to correct academic and vocational deficiencies in preparation for work.	Potential to deal with one coordinated system rather than several fragmented systems in planning for the future.
Feedback regarding the progress and job retention of previous students.	Consultation on individual vocational planning.	Assistance in job development leads through contacts of the vocational education teacher.	
Assistance in curriculum development and planning.	Extension of special education beyond the classroom into the community.		
	Opportunity to impact upon the students' future vocational success through specifically oriented classroom preparation, based on the requirements of specific jobs.		

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION	SPECIAL EDUCATION	VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION	STUDENT AND FAMILY
	Opportunity to have input into a system which will be serving students beyond the completion of school.	Decrease case services costs through the utilization of similar benefits available through the educational systems. Assistance and support of other team members.	

Chapter 4

TEAM BUILDING

CHAPTER IV

TEAM BUILDING

The Importance of the Team

Accomplishing the goal of transition is neither just the responsibility of public education nor just the responsibility of vocational rehabilitation. Many agencies in every state provide services to handicapped youth in the areas of vocational and special education, regular education and rehabilitation. No single agency is capable of providing all the necessary resources, services and experiences which handicapped youth can conceivably need to be adequately trained and acquire jobs which enable them to lead productive lives. Teams come into play to avoid unnecessary duplication and overlapping services. They also assure that there are no gaps or periods of unproductivity and frustration for the person when services do not mesh precisely.

Coordinated administrative functions make it possible to plan and budget effectively. In addition, they mesh the services provided by one agency with the services of others. It is possible to avoid duplication and provide for a uniform and integrated service delivery by specifying the different roles individuals will play.

Collaboration is a process. It is not an incident that takes place at a fixed position in time. It requires that people are willing to interact and problem solve together. The expected outcome of interagency collaboration among human service providers is improved services to a target group of persons (clients) with handicaps.

The parent/student will have to choose the type of activity or service outcome that is most important to them. Preferably this sort of decision making should not be done in isolation, but more appropriately through the participation of the parent-client-professional team.

Whatever the source of the perceived needs for a cooperative effort, the connection cannot be established, the team cannot be built, without a dedicated individual or agency to serve as a catalyst. Each agency serving the handicapped has responsibilities, both statutory and operational. Cooperation among the agencies should assist in establishing: guidelines for cost sharing, cost reimbursement and first dollar funding; the assignment and sharing of personal facilities and equipment; and other components necessary to essential regulatory compliance.

Joint planning can specify the roles different personnel will carry out, identify who will coordinate administrative functions, establish uniform procedures, structure forms and delineate activi-

ties. Such joint ventures may bring about a mutual understanding among individuals as to how their clients or students can best be served. Understanding can lead to diminishing existing barriers within the bureaucratic process.

The collaborative team, with its built-in wide base of knowledge and competencies, can provide more than an answer to laws and regulations. It can outline a way to provide a quality program that will meet the diverse needs of the handicapped while in school, and later in transitioning to the world of work.

Why is the Team Important?

- Different agencies have available the same or similar services. Coordination reduces duplication and confusion.
- No one agency has the resources to meet the totality of the client's needs.
- A high quality of service provided in an orderly fashion requires case management techniques.
- Establishing a system facilitates the identification of barriers to collaboration.
- Representatives of several professional disciplines and agencies can share their perspectives on the needs of the client.
- The unmet needs can be identified.
- Organizational resources can be pooled.
- New programs can be planned by key staff.
- The search for missing service can be extended into the community.
- The student/parent/client becomes knowledgeable, and has the opportunity for continuous interaction with professionals.

PLAYERS

In order to select the representation on a linkage committee or group, it is necessary to define the service agency population and their specific interests. The school-age population often have different needs than the work-age population. The handicapping condition and the time of the onset of that condition may trigger different goals for the service delivery system.

The target population will increase proportionately to the population density. Thus, large urban areas will have a greater chance of committee membership and resources.

The primary responsibility for particular individuals may determine the applicability of the committee and the weight of its membership. For instance, special education may be responsible for handicapped students up to the time they graduate or complete high school. Vocational rehabilitation may then take over the responsibility by developing and implementing a program designed to transition the individual from school to work. At the same time, the need for lifetime health and economic support may shift the decision making responsibility to the medical and social services community (Handbook on Developing Effective Linking Strategies, 1982).

While the ultimate responsibility for providing quality programs belongs to the program administrators, the team approach creates the opportunity for the administrator to make use of other human resources in planning and implementing services (Function of the Placement Committee in Action, 1976). It is the team that will make the decision to assess, evaluate and place an individual and the members will have individual and group responsibilities in carrying out these tasks.

Vocational Education

Secondary vocational education spans a three to four year period. It consists of: orientation; occupational awareness; exploration classes; skill building classes; and work experience or cooperative education classes.

Vocational education is normally concerned with six major occupational areas: vocational agriculture, home economics, health occurations, trades and industries, business and office education and distributive education (Meers, 1980). The instructional time for vocational classes is normally three hours. The usual school day consists of three hours in a shop or lab setting and three hours in academic classes slanted toward a particular trade in which the student is enrolled.

Vocational education is generally offered by an instructor with a degree or suitable work experience who is vocationally certified according to state certification standards (Meers, 1980). The vocational educator is skilled in a craft, knows the job market demands of entry level workers and is the expert in providing instruction linking the craft to the market demand. Vocational educators present a body of information to a group of students in a routine fashion with preset standards of exactness and quality. They judge a student's performance on how well they reach those standards.

The inclusion of students with handicaps into vocational education programs has expanded the competencies needed by the vocational educator beyond the traditional teaching of specific job related competencies and specific job skills. Competencies that will be needed include the ability to develop performance goals and objectives for individual

students. In addition, the teacher should provide reinforcement for learning and assist in the coordination of instructional planning in academic and vocational areas.

Vocational Rehabilitation

The vocational rehabilitation counselor should be a member of any team responsible for planning the vocational training of a person with a handicap. The counselor can be an individual link to other community service agencies and employers. It is the counselor who accepts referrals, determines the eligibility of an applicant for vocational rehabilitation services and provides the link to the community. Eligibility determination includes an assessment of the applicant's (client) medical condition, functional limitation, and vocational aptitudes and abilities.

The criteria for eligibility, broadly stated, consists of three requirements:

- The individual must have a physical or mental impairment.
- The impairment must present a substantial barrier to employment.
- There must be a reasonable expectation that with the provision of services the person will benefit in terms of employability.

It is important to note that unlike special education and vocational education, vocational rehabilitation is not an entitlement program. A number of special education students, particularly those with very mild handicapping conditions, may not be eligible for vocational rehabilitation services due to the absence of a substantial barrier to employment. Other special education students with very profound disabilities may be ineligible for vocational rehabilitation services due to nonfeasibility of eventual employment. Most of these severely disabled students, however, are eligible to receive post-school services through Medicaid funded treatment programs.

In establishing the delivery of services, vocational rehabilitation prepares an Individualized Written Rehabilitation Program or IWRP. The IWRP is: a written program specifying the types of rehabilitation services to be provided; the duration of these services; the sequence of services; the levels of instruction and the specific training; and follow-up supportive services after the client is employed. The main goal of the IWRP is to help the person become employed.

The use of vocational rehabilitation funds for the delivery or purchase of services are subject to regulations. Before using its own funds to purchase services, vocational rehabilitation is required to make use of the services of other agencies. This requirement is often referred to as "first dollar" or "similar benefits."

When a client is accepted by vocational rehabilitation, they may be required to provide information concerning their income and expenses. Depending on the client's income, they may have to share in the cost of services.

Special Education

Special education programs and related services were mandated by state and federal regulations to enable students with disabilities to enjoy the educational rights and privileges of nonhandicapped persons. Services are provided through the intercession of specially designed instruction, unique materials, physical plant adjustments and support personnel. Programs for the handicapped were never meant to operate in a vacuum separate and apart from other educational resources within a school system.

Special education provides a continuum of settings and services. This continuum of educational program placements ranges from the regular program with modifications to state operated or private programs.

Related services are the developmental, corrective and other supportive services which are required to assist the handicapped in benefiting from special education. It includes speech pathology and audiology, psychological services, physical and occupational therapy, recreation, early identification and assessment of the disabilities in children, counseling services, medical services for diagnostic and evaluation purposes, school health services, social work services, parent counseling and training and transportation (Illinois Primer, 1981).

Eligibility for special education and related services is determined by the action of a multidisciplinary team following the recommendations provided by the parents and the various professionals called upon to assess the strengths and weaknesses of the young person. The multidisciplinary team has the responsibility for determining if the child is handicapped, for formulating a placement recommendation, for developing the Individualized Education Plan, and for monitoring the placement.

Each local school system is required to actively seek out and identify handicapped children in need of special education and related services. A screening process may utilize formal screening instruments, informal observation, or a combination of both. The screening process establishes the referral of those children who exhibit problems which interfere with their educational progress and/or their adjustment at an educational setting.

Referral is a formal procedure requesting a case study evaluation of the child. Its purpose is to establish the child's current level of performance and the specific educational service needed. Before any action can be taken on the referral case study, the child's parents must be notified in writing what the local school system proposes. Written parental consent must be obtained before the case study can be initiated. Federal and state regulations affect the conduct of

the case study including the qualification of the personnel, the test instruments used and protection against discrimination.

The committee, in making use of data gathered from many sources, will need to examine all information and then decide whether or not the information is appropriate for determining eligibility. The information will also be used in planning the Individualized Education Plan, and in recommending placement. To be of maximum use to the Committee, the information obtained from this process should be:

- Relevant to educational needs, containing specific programming strategies.
- Appropriate to the decisions to be made.
- Written in simple language describing performances in descriptive terms using nontechnical words.
(Functions of the Placement Community, 1976).

The placement committee structure is required by law; it is the means that has been chosen to accomplish the processes necessary to deliver the services which meet the intent of the law in providing appropriate services to handicapped children. The composition of the placement committee depends upon the requirements of federal and state guidelines and upon the competencies and cooperation between members needed to perform the various functions of the committee. The committee has the right and obligation to require that evaluations meet established criteria. Throughout the process of gathering and interpreting information, the committee must be aware of the procedural safeguards which guarantee due process protection (Functions of the Placement Committee, 1976).

The types of criteria established for eligibility differ from state to state and within each state criteria may vary for services (Functions of the Placement Committee, 1976). The IEP is the vehicle for translating child information into practical planning for the child. At the minimum, the IEP should contain:

- Present level of educational performance.
- Annual goals and short term objectives.
- Specific educational service to be provided.
- Extent to which child will participate in the regular classroom.
- Projected date for initiation and duration of services.
- Objective criteria and evaluation procedures.
- Schedule and procedures for review (must be at least annually).

States and local agencies within states vary considerably in terms of available placement options. The emphasis in determining placement recommendations should, as much as possible, be on services needed rather than with categorical labels. The committee should remain open to the possibilities of creating alternatives for placement if those available do not fit the needs of the children.

Placement means the level and location of the service the child will receive in accordance with their IEP and includes the school or center, the type of classroom and teacher, and the amount of time the child will spend with nonhandicapped students (Hand-in-Hand, Parents and Educators building a Partnership, 1983). Each child should have the opportunity to move through a continuum of service, as appropriate, toward a less restrictive environment.

Several models of service delivery have been identified. Each of these models provide graphic representation of program options that may be available. Keep in mind that models are simply a framework, a suggested format not inclusive or exclusive of all needs.

OTHER PLAYERS AND RESOURCES

Present federal funding for youth employment and training programs is limited. Therefore, all those concerned with successful job placement of disabled youth must have greater involvement in developing, implementing and maintaining effective processes for preparing, habilitating and transitioning of youth into the world of work. Most local communities possess the necessary components and resources to make this a reality. These components can be categorized as either human or material resources. The human resources can be selectively included in the team depending on the needs of the individual student. Material resources rarely stand by themselves. Frequently they provide the tools with which the team is able to accomplish a specific task.

The Parents/Family.

The educational-vocational development of youth with handicaps necessitates a total or comprehensive approach involving families and the professional staff of the various provider agencies. The amount of time available at home for developmental activities far exceeds that of the time with the professional staff. The information available from parents about their handicapped youth's life at home is critical to the developmental planning necessary for any transitional program. Any effort at improving the school to work transition for handicapped youth that fails to incorporate parental involvement as a major component of the process will have limited success. In addition it must be recognized that within this comprehensive approach, the families of handicapped youth may have a number of unique needs that require support services.

A mutual trust relationship between parents and professionals needs to be nourished. Even though there is a trend toward recognizing

parents as partners in their child's education-vocational process, the relationship may be fragile and too easily characterized by residual feelings from the past. Less than a generation ago, influences perpetuated the myth that parents were the primary cause of their child's difficulty. In the process of placing professional labels on the child, the parents were labeled as well.

Attitudes of the parents and the family are extremely important in the life of the handicapped as they play a key role in the individual's social and academic development. The parent/professional team needs to be aware of the family environment, assessing the role of the youth in the total family milieu. Too much emphasis on the family, however, may lead to distrust and biased views. Professionals may hold one set of expectations for the parents of a handicapped child, and a different set for the parents of a nonhandicapped child. However, usually parents of handicapped children do not have higher levels of parenting skills.

Parents typically see their children as an extension of themselves and seek reasons for having a handicapped child. They may indulge in introspection, relive experiences or events that occurred during the pregnancy, birth or formative years of the child. To some degree they live with hurt, fears, closeness, damaged self esteem, frustration and helplessness. Even moderate experiences with these feelings can effect appropriate parent/professional relationships.

The parents of the handicapped have probably invested more of their personal time in the education of their children than have the parents of nonhandicapped. Many studies have shown that parents are key individuals in the occupational choices of the students.

Parents can provide a comfortable safe environment, consistent feedback and support. They can reinforce the skills taught in school. As part of the team, they can become informative specialists, enriching the total team's understanding of the needs of the child and the family (Hand-in-Hand, Parents and Educators Building a Partnership, 1983). Parents are their child's first teachers. Their questions, concerns, suggestions and years of experience with the child should be shared with the team.

Family members, working with school personnel, can broaden the social, career, and vocational understanding of handicapped children. Thereby, increasing the potential for gaining skills, resulting in employment. Parent participation and awareness of classroom activities will enable the parents to assist the children in building a bridge from home to school and into the community.

The involvement of parents is encouraged by law. Developing parent/educator partnerships was outlined in P.L. 94-142 when parents were to be included in team meetings, assessment and evaluation sessions and conferences concerned with planning programs for their child. It is important that the team members make certain that the parent knows what is happening. They need a general understanding of the purposes, goals, objectives and perceptions of each provider as well as information on how they can seek support.

Parents play a key role in three segments of the handicapped child's vocational education. First they participate in and approve their child's placement, secondly they participate in the development of the IEP and thirdly, they monitor their child's program and the school's performance of the services outlined in the IEP (Meers, 1980).

Parents are consumers and as such can communicate with others in carrying out certain phases of the program and counseling others newly involved in the needs of the handicapped. Parents can act as child advocates, participating in meetings to develop the special programs and learning goals of the child. They can make informed decisions regarding assessment, goals and placement and coordinate all of the information placed in case files.

From the parent's perspective, the transition from home to school and school to work may seem rather complex. Beyond their own parental interests in their handicapped child, there are a multitude of educational programs, service agencies, legal mandates, and general advocacy groups that seek to play a special role in the life of each handicapped person. Involved parents can become informed consumers and influence the design of the service network that will assist their child to develop skills, abilities, and to obtain and maintain competitive employment.

Other School Personnel

Many other school personnel can play a critical role in the team. On occasion they may create, lead, and maintain the team effort. Some of these other players are: the regular classroom teacher, guidance counselor, school psychologist, school administrator, school health team, social workers, audiologist, speech and language clinician, physical and occupational therapist, and other school support staff.

Interagency Collaborative Boards

Interagency collaborative boards, or similar organizations, either allocate funds or provide resources for the purpose of developing, maintaining and supporting interagency cooperation and networking at the local level. Examples of these are:

- United Fund, which attempts to provide coordinated fund-raising for a wide variety of charitable and service agencies.
- Developmental Disability funds to various facilities and agencies and coordinates programming offered at those different facilities and agencies.
- Intermediate school district collaborative boards, cooperative educational service agencies, and intermediate school district collaborative boards and cooperative educational service agencies.

- Shared services agencies, which either coordinate similar services among several districts/communities or provide services and resources which individual districts/communities might not be able to efficiently provide. This kind of resource may be available where, due to state or local law or administrative ruling, formal agency agreements for continuous/overlapping services are not politically feasible between public schools and vocational rehabilitation agencies.

Local Business, Industry and Government Personnel

This is a three-fold resource. Typically, local businesses and industry have been looked upon in terms of their capacity to provide part-time (paid or unpaid) work experiences for nonhandicapped and handicapped students, and most often in the form of supervised worksites. This remains a critical role for this resource. Local employers, more than any others, share with the rest of your community, responsibility for maintaining community standards, which includes producing socially ready high school graduates.

The local employer is also, perhaps, the most likely resource with which to seek both permanent and transitional employment opportunities for many of our graduating students. Their advice and input in setting educational objectives for vocational, career and skill training emphasis in the high school programs and in post-high school rehabilitation programs, can be carefully solicited. Their potential for contribution (e.g., through advisory groups or private industry councils) should be sought. Like employers everywhere, their need is to hire workers who will contribute to overall productivity and profit. Like most employers, they are susceptible to adapting their environment, working conditions and employment opportunities in favor of handicapped youth. However, they must be given a reasonable expectations that to do so will not radically diminish productivity. With more handicapped students placed among local employers, more useful feedback on successful and not-so-successful efforts in the schools and rehabilitation program can help lead to better practices in both.

Local employers are a particularly important source of career information in the respective sectors they represent. Easiest access to current career education information (e.g., speakers, mentors, employers, trainers) is available through the local employers for successive classes of students. Students can receive specific information on different industries and businesses. Information: what different kinds of jobs are available; what some of the real restrictions are that are placed upon workers in the different jobs; and when and how these jobs are or are not likely to be available to high school and graduating students.

Examples of local employers may include: grocery and retail stores; janitorial, clerical and delivery services; florist and specialty shops; franchised fast-food restaurants and cafes; hardware and building supply stores; law, dental and medical offices; warehouses, trucking companies, small appliance and motor repair services;

small, medium and large product manufacturers; agricultural and automobile dealerships and part suppliers; government service groups (e.g., street department, parks and forest bureaus). All of these represent community resources where relevant advice for developing curriculum and training experiences can be derived. They are resources which typically have part-time and full-time job opportunities which high school students at various levels of skill may fill. Most can provide real work experience, some training opportunity and all can provide a real opportunity for vocational information and exploration.

Medical Personnel

Physicians, surgeons, orthopedic specialists, dentists, public health nurses, physical therapists and occupational therapists provide assessment and restorative services to identify and resolve organic and physiological problems for the disabled student. Access to these resources and their skills can be developed in such a way that their input, as well as direct service to the handicapped student, are regularly available at all stages of the students education and habilitation. Differences in training, background, experience and other barriers often diminish regular contact with them and effective use of their skills. The extent of their availability, ways to engage their involvement in the habilitation and educational planning for students, and methods to insure that their skills are regularly available at all stages in the student development can be profitably explored.

Social Services Representatives

Family and personal counseling services, psychiatrists, psychologists, family planning, independent living services, reading and remedial skills training, daily living training, social skills training, legal and paralegal services, dietetic counseling, speech therapists, audiologists and specialists in architectual barrier removal are some of the many community resources which may be needed on behalf of the student. Quite often, these specialists and services are available through local (childrens' welfare aid societies, public welfare), county (developmental disabilities boards, mental health centers), state agencies (departments of social services, welfare and public assistance) and community agencies (United Fund, Easter Seal Society), directly or in combination with cost sharing/payment programs. Often too, these resources are available through various religious organizations (United Jewish Appeal, Catholic Childrens' Society, Lutheran Childrens' Agency, Catholic charities), church-based programs (interdenominational pastoral and family counseling programs), through local colleges, vocational technical schools, and university programs (as outreach clinics, as intern practices in degree granting social and educational programs), and private nondenominational services (private reading clinics, psychological and mental health services, associations for specific disability groups). Identification and regular contact with these resources will establish, for professionals and handicapped persons alike, ongoing resources for continued self-habilitation and rehabilitation on behalf of student/workers throughout adult life.

Volunteers and Local, State and National Organizations

There are myriad service and civic groups and organizations available in most communities which can be helpful in providing materials, activities and experiences for career development. Among the more common ones are fraternities and sororities at schools and universities, school recreation and service clubs and groups (homemaker, industrial education, music, drama, computer clubs, student senates, parent teacher associations), business and agricultural based clubs (Junior Achievement, 4-H Clubs), and business groups with programs of service and outreach directed at youth, minorities and the handicapped (Kiwanis, Rotary Club, Jaycees, Chamber of Commerce, coalitions of minority employers). Groups and organizations like these will often time provide specialized equipment for handicapped persons (wheel chairs, glasses, seeing-eye dogs, specially engineered vehicles, typewriters, tools), equipment for training (computers and computer software, lathes, packaging machines, woodworking tools), support for surgical, medical and psychological services, funds for training (special scholarships, financing for computer training programs), and service or event sponsorship (special olympics, job fairs, guest speakers, tours, ideas, advertisement, planning and engineering volunteers).

Local, state and national organizations for the handicapped, with emphasis upon the local chapter, can be called upon for assistance in meeting specified local or multi-county needs.

Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA)

The Job Training Partnership Act was passed by Congress in 1982 and went into effect on October 1, 1983. The Act replaced and was intended to improve upon the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA). Additionally, it was to increase the role of private business and industry in the training and employment of disadvantaged youth and adults. As was stated in CETA, it is also expected that JTPA realize that as a result of a handicap, a person may also be economically disadvantaged. Thus, for most service delivery areas, it seems probable that handicapped youth may be included for the benefits of this new program.

The Job Training Partnership Act promises a new and unique relationship between the public and private sectors. Federal funds will be directed by states to local or regional Service Delivery Areas (SDA), each of which will have a Private Industry Council (PIC) to share overall policy and responsibility. These councils will be composed of local business leaders and officials, organized labor, rehabilitation, employment, economic development, education and related interests. At the state level, a Job Training Coordinating Council will be appointed by the governor to share decision making authority. One-third of the state council members will be from business and industry. These new linkages will bring public agencies and private enterprise together to plan and provide job training and employment opportunities which have previously been almost exclusively a responsibility of the public domain.

Service providers for handicapped youth should become familiar with the administrators for the JTPA program in their Service Delivery Area. While it is recognized that there are limited funds, it will be up to the individual service provider for handicapped youth to see that their students and/or clients are made eligible for the JTPA and that specific employment opportunities are developed and the necessary arrangements are made with employers.

Projects With Industry (PWI)

The Projects With Industry (PWI) program was authorized in 1968 to provide funding to assist the severely disabled persons in obtaining competitive employment through the provision of such services as training and placement. The Rehabilitation Service Administration (RSA) of the U.S. Department of Education administers the program which provides support to projects to involve private sector representatives in the design and administration of the projects. Projects are also required to coordinate their activities with state rehabilitation agencies. It needs to be understood that any referral to a PWI program will need to have been determined eligible by a state rehabilitation agency. While the clients are handicapped individuals with severe disabilities, no pattern is apparent in the type of disability.

The following items provide a brief description of PWI projects:

- Nearly two-thirds of the projects are operated by rehabilitation facilities or associations of such facilities;
- All projects receive funding from sources other than PWI as required by law;
- Projects vary in mix of services offered to clients but do not provide training in occupational skills;
- All projects have advisory councils comprised of local business personnel and representatives from the rehabilitation community with functions that include: oversight of project operations; design of training activities; assistance in placement; and donation of supplies and equipment;
- Project's activities are consistent with state legislated goal, the placement of clients in competitive employment.

A recent review by RSA suggests that PWI projects appear generally successful in meeting the programs goal of developing private sector linkages to assist disabled persons in achieving competitive employment. Second, in response to a specific inquiry, it was found that no single type of organization is more successful than another in accomplishing PWI goals. Rather, the range of organizations operating PWI's and the program's flexibility to allow project staff to provide "best fit" services appear to be important factors in the PWI program's overall effectiveness.

As noted previously, referrals to PWI programs will, at some time, need to have been determined to be eligible for services by public vocational rehabilitation agencies. For that reason, it will be imperative for vocational rehabilitation to be a part of inter-agency collaboration in the transition of handicapped youth from school to work. It will be through this type of cooperation that PWI can be made to be especially useful for handicapped youth.

Recreational Resources

Local and country recreational programs, facilities at parks and recreation centers, privately owned recreational and theme parks, museums, planetariums, public and private theaters, socially and religiously based athletic, drama, musical and cultural groups, YMCA, YWCA, Girl Scouts, Boy Scouts, Cub Scouts, Brownies, fraternal organizations (e.g., Knights of Columbus, Masons, Elks, Shriners, Lions), health clubs are among the many resources available in the community upon which to develop significant recreational outlets for handicapped students. While barriers (architectual and attitudinal) are present, there is also a historic willingness to adapt and modify physical access to these options for many handicapped persons. Once identified, these avenues can be productively tapped and maintained by an occasional involvement of recreation specialists from these settings in helping to plan social/recreational options for the disabled person's life.

Foundations

Foundations may provide funding for specific kinds of social and economic ventures. Scholarship programs for designated types of students (based upon need, ethnic group, type of disability), resource personnel (for career information, design, engineering or curriculum), or research and development funds for priority issues. Some foundations are locally based, while others are national as well. Local foundations may be sponsored by trade organizations, corporations and different kinds of religious and social groups. Some foundation's programs are multi-year and often times will have restrictions as to whether schools, organizations or individuals may be recipients of grants from them. Those most local should be surveyed for their use as program and individual resources for program and individual development.

Grant Resources

Grant funds are available from most state departments of education and bureaus, boards, and department of special education, vocational technical education, vocational rehabilitation, mental health, developmental disability, health, welfare, training and development divisions, and employment services. These funds are available under block grants (distributed by formula to local or county agencies), available under segregated funds (distributed for specific purposes and for use with specific groups and often times dictated by law), or available as discretionary funds (limited funds provided to an agency for administrative purposes and to address issues or populations which the agency

has specifically identified). Further, some of these funds must be used for direct case-service, must be for priority service programs, for demonstration and research only, or some for targeted training programs. Individuals, groups and organizations may be eligible for application for some grants, but not for others. For every grant funding source, however, there are priorities and regulations published which outline who and under what conditions these funds can be accessed. With few exceptions, these priorities and regulations are available early in the fiscal year, though the priorities change from year to year. As there are also monies rolled-back from many of the programs and projects funded with these grants, some funds may be available toward the end of the fiscal year (fourth quarter) for small projects or endeavors which may be identified at the discretion (to a limited degree) of the granting agency. While these amounts are never extensive, they can sometimes augment student and staff training and development activities, especially those activities which show promise for increased impact on a long term problem (e.g., accessing jobs for minorities and disabled persons).

Many grant programs are made up of a mixture of federal and state funds. Basic state grants are provided under education, rehabilitation and special needs legislation and enable basic state programs in these areas. However, there are also direct, federally authorized grant programs which are nationally (and competitively) available. The Department of Education (and its various offices and bureaus of career education), the Department of Health, the Rehabilitation Services Administration, the Department of Mental Health, all provide funding (based on annually determined national priorities, published in the Federal Register) for demonstration, research and development projects. Some of these grants may be applicable to the local school district and/or rehabilitation agencies for establishing unique, replicable practices and technology.

Targeted Job Tax Credit (TJTC)

The TJTC is a program that gives employers a direct initiative to hire members of certain target groups which includes handicapped youth. Additionally, it encourages them to keep them during the critical first two years of employment. This incentive is a tax credit, an actual reduction of the amount of taxes an employer must pay.

Handicapped youth referred to the Targeted Job Tax Credit program can be representatives of five of the seven target groups. They are:

1. Recipients of Supplemental Security Income (SSI) payments;

2. Handicapped individuals referred from vocational rehabilitation;

3. Economically disadvantaged youth from 18 through 24 years of age;

4. Recipients of state or local general assistance; and

5. Youth 16 through 18 years old participating in an approved cooperative education program.

Besides the obvious benefit of a tax savings that employers obtain from the TJTC, the program supplies them with a pool of qualified screened job applicants. In addition, the TJTC paperwork requirements for employers have been kept to a minimum. The burden of proving to the Internal Revenue Service that a person is a member of an eligible targeted group doesn't rest with the employer. Instead, that responsibility rests with the participating government agency.

The tax savings, the source of qualified applicants, and the simplicity of the program itself are all benefits for employers. The TJTC also benefits the agencies and organizations providing services to handicapped youth. It can assist these organizations in developing good working relationships with employers who perhaps have resisted previous efforts to obtain jobs for handicapped youth.

Summary Concerning Resources

School personnel (especially teachers), vocational rehabilitation counselors and supervisors, and parents are often unaware and lacking in time to explore and develop possible linkages. Other resources, though limited in many respects, hold promise of fulfilling many individual and group single type service needs. These resources are not "quick fix" answers. They require identification and documentation of need as well as a carefully planned presentation. The old axiom, generally speaking, is that those who make the best grades, devote the most time to their homework, or those who burn the midnight oil derive more from the daylight hours.

The most under-utilized resource at this point in time appears to be the void of people in the field willing to be innovative, invest effort and time, to identify and document needs, then selling their approach(s) of meeting those needs over an extended time.

Resources are many, their realization in shared cost/effective utilization has been limited, it appears, nationwide. We do not make light of the required "time," "effort," "documentation," "PR," etc., required to bring this about. One can easily and justifiably say and feel, "That's not my job." I don't have the time and I'm not being paid for that." The above only applies to the true professional or professional - strong of heart, determination, and with a firm/full awareness of what dedicated professionalism entails. In the main, you get what you pay for.

A successful special education teacher or vocational rehabilitation counselor must be dedicated, innovative, confident of goals and direction and one who enjoys and understands the complexities and demands of their positions in order to achieve respect as a professional. Resources are abundant, the dedicated professional finds them,

develops them and utilizes them. You seldom hear the mature professional cursing the darkness. They are too busy striking matches.

MODELS

The variety of ways in which teams are created is almost unlimited. It is beyond the scope of this section to discuss each of the most common types of group structure. Instead, this section focuses on the two most common types of teams which are found in school settings and developed expressly for the purpose of facilitating students' transition from school to work. It should be noted, however, that within the two models presented, many variations in terms of individual group structure also exist. The important point to keep in mind is that the fundamental goal of each of these models is the same, to enhance the special needs student's transition from school to work.

Descending Team

The primary distinguishing characteristic of the descending team is that it is created at, or near the top, of an administrative heirarchy. For example, an administrator might require as a matter of policy that a multidisciplinary team of "vocational/special needs" personnel be created for each special needs student at a designated point in their education. In other cases, the administrator might request that such a group be formulated to address the need of a single student or group of students. This situation is not uncommon in smaller schools where administrators are in closer direct contact with student activities and a limited number of resources makes it impossible to set forth a "policy" as described in the first example.

The descending team, then, is one which is formed from the top down. The primary advantage of this team over the ascending team (described next) is that it inherently has the support of top level members of the administrative hierarchy since they created the team. In practice, this may mean that the team has access to greater resources whether in terms of personnel, program funds, or in other areas. However, this advantage can be more than offset if the members that form this group are not carefully selected. Such members must be committed to be goals and objectives of the team as well as to the individual student's welfare. They must also have adequate personal resources if they are to be effective group members. This means that in addition to commitment, they must also have the time needed to work with the group. It is often not as easy to formulate a group composed of such dedicated and interested people when they are formed by an external force rather than pulling together voluntarily, as a result of mutual concerns, as is the case with the ascending group.

Ascending Team

The ascending team is essentially formed from the bottom up. In such cases, the development of this type of team is most often the result of the individual effort of one or two professionals, deeply concerned about the needs of an individual student. They pull together

the other members of the team based primarily on student needs rather than "administrative policy." Ascending teams may have a great deal of support from the top levels of administration or such support may be minimal at best. Obviously, the first circumstance is most desirable. When this occurs, capable, dedicated people make up the group. They are also reasonably assured, from the outset, that their efforts will be supported by key decision-makers who are external to the group. Under such conditions, it is likely that resources will be made available to the group as much as possible.

The primary disadvantage of the ascending group is that when it lacks the support of key external decision-makers, necessary resources are not always readily forthcoming. However, it is generally not an overwhelming obstacle since this group has the most important advantage, dedicated and concerned members who are truly committed to the group's work. Under these conditions, ascending groups can often accomplish a great deal with minimal resources.

A variety of different teams can be created by the above methods. Following are the three primary team types.

Description of Three Team Types

Model	Professional Interaction
Multidisciplinary	Each professional independently makes a diagnosis and provides recommendations. These findings are collected by one team member who is responsible for developing a final report.
Interdisciplinary	After the child is evaluated independently by professionals, a team conference is conducted to make intervention decisions by group consensus.
Transdisciplinary	Professionals continue their involvement beyond assessment to include direct intervention, evaluation, reassessment, etc. Although one team member has the responsibility of carrying out the recommendations, this professional is supported by input from other specialists.

(Mandell, 1981).

NETWORKING

Networking in the context of this document, is bringing people and resources together to support students in transition from school to work. It requires two elements, people and resources. People are the actors, causers and collaborative doers and participants in the transition process. Resources are widely identified and may come

from within the respective professions, from legislative and fiscal authority, the skills of the professionals and their colleagues, and from the community in which the student and the disciplines function. A network becomes effective when resources and actors interact at every level in this process for developing the student's vocational self.

Setting Up The Network

Every resource available in the network is typically staffed by one or more members of your own or a related discipline. The importance of the person-to-person factor in this integration is of no small value if the network is to be initiated and maintained. There are really two steps for setting up the network: Getting to know people at each resource; and selling your discipline to that resource.

A common factor in many successful collaborations or linkages is the solid relationships which develop between individuals in the collaborating agencies, relationships both formal and informal. Fostering these relationships comes about if there is a common need, when there is understanding of the rules and regulations (legislative and administrative) which govern each others practices, and when there is understanding of the potential and limitations of each discipline. Their importance and how they come about seems independent of whether the collaboration is at the administrative or staff level.

In many collaborations, the presenting agenda is more "How can we work together to achieve a common goal," than "What's in it for me." Whether the attitude to cooperate or the common need come first is really unimportant as the key thing is that the different members in the collaboration have respect for each others professional expertise and understand the basic nature of their disciplines. Communications and joint problem solving activities foster this kind of cooperative knowledge. It is therefore necessary that each member spend time learning to understand the nature of the other member's professional training, job complexity, possibilities and restrictions, and reward systems. While the rough outlines of another's discipline can be gathered from books and other material, real understanding comes from talking about what they do and why they may have to do it in the way they do.

In getting to know about other disciplines, it is important to understand the legislation and regulation which govern their practice. A cursory knowledge of the parameters of legislation for all professionals is needed to aid understanding and collaboration. For example, if a rehabilitation counselor was knowledgeable of the provisions of P.L. 92-142, the counselor would have a better understanding of both the reward systems, checks and balances and flexibility of the special education teacher. In addition, they would understand the requirements for and how Individual Education Programs relates to students' total school program. Then, when teacher and counselor attempt to introduce a vocational component (e.g., work study), both will understand that this component cannot be independently established, but will be based in a variety of other student experiences.

while this may limit the scope of the plan in someways, many procedural pitfalls and wasted planning are avoided.

Understanding others disciplines and rules also helps potential collaborators to know how each is rewarded, to what groups they are responsible, the conflicting goals they might have to pursue and a constituent base that may be subtly different. For instance, the rehabilitation counselor is rewarded for successful closure. They have a constituency which includes persons with disabilities, employers, families and similar professionals. They will be encouraged to collaborate if there is a potential to increase the proportion of successful closure among graduating students with handicaps while not substantially increasing cost or time. Likewise, the special education teacher has a constituency which includes the student, student's family and colleague educators. Teachers are rewarded by the community when their students acquire relevant skills or graduate. They are encouraged to collaborate when there is greater likelihood that more of their students will acquire skills which are prized by the community or when more of their students obtain high school diplomas.

Understanding only goes so far. Successful collaboration means that the participating parties have something to offer to each other as they pursue a common goal. Quite often professionals sell themselves short. Carefully examine the skill base of your profession, its constituency, its legislative mandates and its philosophical foundation. Such an examination should yield many unique skills and resources with which to help make a collaborative effort work. The rehabilitationist will bring to the process knowledge and skills for diagnosing and planning for the impact of disability on employment. They have knowledge of how attitudes and poorly developed academic and vocational skills have real impact on future training and employment. They also have a legal capacity to establish and support plans for remediating or building upon the experiences of the student post high school. In a like manner, educators bring to the process greater knowledge of the limitations and possibilities for learning academic and vocational skills open to different students. They understand effective methods for achieving goals, techniques for teaching and training in a vast array of academic and non-academic areas. They also know the legal capacity to plan and provide an educational program. These plans integrates skill development in both areas and anticipates what experiences and habilitation may follow secondary schooling. Each member, in effect, has something to contribute. If these are clearly announced and recognized by all parties, selling has been accomplished and the collaboration becomes a reality. Maintaining the collaboration then can take place.

Maintaining The Network

Consenting adults, a marriage does not make. Formalization of the network process eventually comes about because money and other forms of resources will be consumed. Interest and energies wane and characters in the play change, but the need to collaborate in the interest of students transitioning from school to work continues.

Clearly stated, shared, obtainable and agreed upon goals on behalf of students is necessary between agencies which are formally charged with responsibility to coordinate student transition. Second, each agency must have a clearly defined role, an understanding as to what their contribution will be, their commitment of services, personnel and other resources and agree to the duration of this understanding. Third, each agency should be fully aware of the federal and state legal limits of eligibility and denial of service provisions and whether there is complimentariness among the different enabling legislations. In effect, then, formalized cooperative agreements are the first level of support for maintaining the network as they enable and define different agency commitment and ability to interact.

Given that there is such a formally established commitment, two additional features need to be present if the network is to be continued. Persons in the several involved agencies must assume responsibility to keeping the network going (a team). The resources in the community must be kept current, continued awareness of need for their resources must be maintained, periodic contacts and meetings among the involved parties need to be held to monitor what is going on in the network, enthusiasm and individual commitment to collaboration in keeping with a common goal must be reinforced. An identified team is the reasonable vehicle for maintaining this operational continuity.

Evaluating the Network's Success

Certainly one of the most important steps in facilitating the team's success in enhancing a student's transition from school to work involves developing a strategy for evaluating the effectiveness of the team. This involves determining:

- To what extent the team achieved its specific goals and objectives;
- Whether achieving these goals and objectives had the impact on the student's development;
- Whether additional strategies need to be developed to meet unachieved goals and objectives and the extent to which these new strategies are feasible; and
- Whether original goals and objectives need to be revised or deleted based on the actual progress of the team.

In the vast majority of cases, evaluation will take place at two levels. The first type, an on-going activity, provides the group with the necessary feedback required as they progress towards their goals and objectives. This type of continuous evaluation is often informal but critically important since it provides a mechanism for identifying obstacles to success early in the problem-solving process. The team can then make important modifications in their direction and activities when needed and in the most timely manner possible.

The second type of evaluation is more formal and generally takes place at designated points in the team's activities and culminates in a final evaluation of the group's efforts in relation to its goals and objectives and the impact on the student. It may focus on more general evaluative measures as in the case of assessing the effectiveness of cooperative agreements among members of different agencies.

Chapter 5

DYNAMICS OF CHANGE

CHAPTER V

DYNAMICS OF CHANGE

The decision to become a change agent should involve serious consideration. The recognition that services to a client/student is the responsibility of many agencies and a desire therefore to cooperate with those agencies is not sufficient to introduce change in the service delivery system. Regardless of profession, the promotion of interagency arrangements requires an understanding of bureaucracies, the barriers to collaboration and the elements that effect change. The ability to create interagency efforts depends upon recognizing and understanding the roles of others, becoming knowledgeable of the techniques that elicit favorable responses and actions and anticipating problem areas in order to provide creative solutions. Confronted with this complex task, discouragement and feelings of helplessness as to where to begin, are understandable.

TERRITORIALISM: A SURMOUNTABLE BARRIER

Territorialism is natural. It serves the professional, the client, the student, and those with whom we interact. Defining work territory helps meet a need to function effectively and efficiently within a specific system. It is important because of the investment we make in establishing it. Territory defines our professional identity.

Establishing a working territory is necessary for counselors, teachers, vocational educators, school psychologists and supervisors. If you know what causes territories to come about and what they are, you can provide a better basis for functioning with your counterparts in other systems. That knowledge will help to improve the move from school to work.

There seems to be five principles which govern the use of territories in the human service environment:

1. Territories are established to insure availability of resources to meet a primary need. Professional territories are established to insure that the professional role is effectively and efficiently fulfilled.

2. The size of the territory is restricted to the amount of resources, the complexity of the social system and the number of inhabitants drawing upon them. The professional territory will contain and accommodate the rules, constraints, resources and necessary control to insure minimal interference with professional responsibilities.

3. Territories expand or contract based upon dominance and the availability of needed resources. Professional territories will change to the degree that changes in the type of clients and goals affect the demands on one's professional resources.

4. Territory is threatened when availability of needed resources to meet a primary need is reduced. Professional territories are threatened when loss of control over resources and role application is anticipated.

5. Territory is shared when there is a common secondary need, but the resources to meet the primary need are not threatened. If there are known and shared goals and the primary goals of different professionals in different agencies are not at stake, the prerogatives of each is secure and cooperation can take place.

Investment in Building Territory

Territories are necessary and important. They took you considerable time and energy to put into place. The primary reasons for establishing a work territory within a system is to gain control over how to go about the job. Also, territory influences how effectively and efficiently goals are pursued which are of value to your clients.

Territory requires investment of significant personal, professional and financial resources. This is true for every professional who is effectively functioning in their system. Regardless of their role, each has made similar, substantial investments in order to develop their territory. Some of the kinds of costs, ways and types of investments which are commonly made in establishing a viable working territory are the following:

- Time, financial and intellectual resources to learn needed job-skills, as well as professional skills.
- Acceptance of limits on economic and professional benefits.
- Promotion and maintenance of professional relationships and network of resource.
- Accommodation or acceptance of goals, standards and limitations of system for pursuing client or student needs.
- Acceptance or accommodation to the range of resources available which can be drawn upon.
- Alignment of philosophy and values to that of the system.
- Restriction in options and opportunities to pursue other goals in another system or profession.

- Limits placed on potential to affect or impact on disabled persons.

- Development and maintenance of relationships and allegiances to colleagues, clients, profession and system.

- Accommodation or acceptance of the forms and sources or rewards, pressures and penalties available for performance.

Territories Provide Identity

Not everything involved in establishing and maintaining a territory is costly. Particularly important benefits are derived from having a well-defined territory. Not the least of these is, that territory helps in providing identity. An identity provides a basis to interact with others who do similar work. People relate to each other on the basis of their identities. Efforts to define an effective territory pays-off when they help develop an image within a social group. When relating to others in a social group, individuals are seen as effective, productive, valuable, and complimentary to the identities of others.

How well the individual's work territory is defined has direct benefits in terms of how they are supervised in their work. Depending on the definition of work territory, supervisors are able to expect certain levels of effectiveness and efficiency. This predictability provides the basis for appraisal of job performance. It also provides the worker a degree of control over the rewards and penalities.

Without exception, having a well established and publicly known work territory is critical if one is to relate effectively to colleagues, and clients. Whether they are clients, students, advocates, parents or colleagues, this establishes an identity with which to relate to competence. In different ways, image is defined by the structure given to work territory. This image provides colleagues and clientele their basis for anticipating the potential quality of teaching, counseling, training or planning.

There are a number of similarities and conditions which make it easier for others working in the same system to comprehend the reasons and structure of person's work territory. They are:

- Similarities in their professional training, work experiences and background;

- Common philosophy, values, and beliefs they hold regarding persons with disabilities;

- Common philosophy and values;

- Goals they pursue with clientele;

- Social, legislative and economic rules governing their systems;
- Folklore of their profession;
- Sources and forms of rewards, pressures and penalties in their job.

A clear definition of a person's work territory is a basis for interacting and working cooperatively with professionals in other systems. On the basis of this portrayal, one becomes a known, predictable commodity. From it others gain that all too elusive quality of trust.

If we restrict the basis for our cooperative activities, we will likely fail to realize the effects we desire for the well-being and rehabilitation of the student. There are at least three major reasons why we should not restrict ourselves to the program/system level:

1. As resources, clients or funding change, operating procedures must be renegotiated;
2. Planning of programs is based upon protection of resources; and
3. Administrative restrictions to the system can establish adversarial problems.

Collectively, these help perpetuate an attitude that what one does in one's own system is somehow more right. Our goals and our skills are better than those of others. This attitude of distrust is something which can destroy the purpose of cooperative agreements.

Our purpose is to establish the idea that the common need, upon which professionals in different systems base truly effective cooperative programming, is a need to assure effective movement of the disabled student through schooling, vocational preparation and transition into least restricted social and vocational environments. That common goal, need, shared territory, provides the assurance that the programs available through the school and the vocational rehabilitation services are planned, implemented and coordinated as early in the student's life as is reasonable. Further, that the resources compliment and supplement each other, rather than duplicate or conflict.

Our purpose is to make clear that each system will pursue congruent and dissimilar goals for the student/client; goals which do not have to be considered as one more valued or important than the other or that those goals cannot be sought simultaneously.

By recognizing territorialism and keeping clearly in mind the systems goals, an effective functional relationship can be formed. By recognizing and focusing our energies on a common territory, the penalties one might expect by moving outside one's territory can be minimized. The skills, responsibilities and authority of each in

the cooperative arrangement commands respect and common goals are pursued. Student goals will be attained efficiently and long-term, functional cooperation will be established.

POWER AND AUTHORITY

Collaboration and cooperation are of critical importance in regards to the provision of a full-range of human services to persons with disabilities. The concepts of "power" and "authority" can have a significant affect on collaborative endeavors among professionals. Individuals with assigned authority are often granted control over programs and professionals. However, astute professionals can often achieve what they are seeking through negotiation.

Ability to negotiate is enhanced through personal power in the form of information, mobility, and resources. Professionals who want to increase their organization's strength become knowledgeable about other service providers' turf, strive to move about freely in others' domains, and constantly attempt to keep resources in balance as well as understand when resources are an asset or a liability. Through these techniques an organization can more effectively acquire the services of other delivery systems, thereby, enhancing their own strength.

Determining the "locus of power" in any organization, system or group is critical to the accomplishment of one's goals. Many professionals find themselves working in schools or institutions where they are not in control of the environment. It becomes their responsibility to determine who within that situation has the power to help them achieve the objectives. Once that identification has been accurately assessed, then one can direct their time and energies in a manner that will best achieve these goals. This is not to say you ignore the other actors, you merely concentrate your efforts toward the identified locus of power. The following list includes specific behaviors which will assist people in developing their own power or understanding another person's power.

1. Always have an agenda. "If you don't know where you're going, you can't tell when you get there."

2. Always have a plan B. An alternate plan of action insures that an individual has the opportunity of accomplishing something.

3. Be knowledgeable about the authority and responsibility of other service providers. Teachers and counselors know what they are required to do. Remember to test the assumption that whoever you are working with must play by the rules. Hold all parties accountable for fulfilling their roles (Howard, 1981).

4. Keep calm and do not lose control of yourself. Negotiation sessions can be exasperating. A person may be

tempted to get angry and fight back when intemperate accusations are made or when "the straw that broke the camel's back" is hurled on the table.

5. Avoid making off-the-record comments. Remember that comments are never off-the-record. Innocently made remarks have a way of returning to haunt their author. Be careful to only state comments that you are willing to have quoted.

6. Do not be excessively candid. Inexperienced negotiators with the best intentions may desire to "lay the cards on the table face up." This action may be performed under the mistaken notion that everybody fully understands each other and that utter frankness is desired. Complete candor does not always serve the best interests of productive negotiation.

7. Be a patient listener. The most successful negotiators have the ability to listen to what other people are saying. Allow the people you are negotiating with to do the talking, especially in the beginning.

8. Do not be afraid of a little pressure. Discussions can generate stress. It is a good practice to allow whomever you are meeting with to fully express themselves even if you are feeling a considerable amount of disagreement.

9. Control the voice level. Smart negotiators maintain the pitch of their voice even though they may be tempted to let it rise under the excitement of emotional stress.

10. Maintain flexibility. Skilled negotiators have the ability to shift position if a positive gain can be accomplished. Being obstinate or stubborn usually serves as deterrent not an advantage.

11. Refrain from using absolute "no" responses. Controlled use of "no" responses are especially critical in the early stages of negotiation. Negative responses early in the negotiation process can force a person into a position which they would prefer not to be in.

12. Be willing to concede something to your opponent in order to gain a concession. Negotiation is the art of giving and receiving.

13. Attempt to settle easier items first. Reach agreement first on those items which present the least controversy. Tackle the tough items last in order to avoid an early deadlock.

14. Respect individuals with whom you are negotiating. Make the assumption that their motives are sincere unless proven otherwise.

15. Demonstrate patience in long, tiresome meetings. Time is most often on the side of the patient negotiator.

16. Avoid waving "red flags." Unnecessary warnings can irritate professionals and increase their level of disagreement. Learn what angers the individuals you are negotiating with and avoid using them.

17. Allow the other side to win some concessions. Both sides must be allowed to win some victories, a total victory for one side does not represent meaningful negotiations.

18. Negotiation is an accepted everyday practice. Negotiators who resent the process weaken their position. Accepting and open minds can negotiate anything.

Collective Efforts Result in Success

An interesting phenomena occurs when a professional is accepted into the turf of another person who is working with their client or student. The child not only becomes the turf, but they become readily accessible. Other service providers will not impair progress once this common ground is agreed upon. Members of different disciplines unite forces by joining the team.

Upon joining, the team members have been co-opted. Co-opted does not have a negative meaning, although it may sound like coerced. Coercion is the threatening use of power, whereas co-opting is the practice of including the dissident faction on your team and motivating them to be productive. The expected result is that complaining and disagreement ceases and the team gains a committed member. This approach facilitates an "everybody wins" situation and it allows everyone to be a part of the team. Services can more readily be offered and team members can share positive benefit outcomes which result from the collective use of resources and information. When this working relationship is achieved, clients or students, counselors, teachers, and other support groups can play their role without fear. Furthermore, they can believe in and prosper from each other's power and victories.

MOBILIZING FOR CHANGE

This chapter has briefly discussed the topics of job territories, the differences between authority and power, how to recognize and utilize your own power, and techniques for starting a dialogue with other professionals concerned with your client/student. The next step towards creating interagency arrangements necessitates accepting the responsibility of becoming a change agent and recognizing that, at times, one may be misunderstood and little appreciated. Those

that accept the challenge must garner the support or at least the neutrality of the agency administrator concerning the concept of inter-agency coordination.

The following are some guidelines for both teams and individuals as they approach the complex task of implementing change.

Knowledge can be a powerful instrument for effecting change. Becoming informed about inter-agency coordination issues will help in soliciting support from your agency administrator as well as gathering additional support from your colleagues. To aid in this process, explore all federal legislation pertaining to handicapped individuals and attempt to understand the intent of the laws and how they effect inter-agency collaboration and services to handicapped people. A review of state policy and/or legislation pertaining to handicapped individuals and inter-agency coordination is also a necessary first step. Understanding each agency's laws, governance and jargon, is critical, as well as, each agency's area of responsibility for serving persons with disabilities. Knowledge of the state's funding mechanisms and the services that each state agency will fund is critical information.

The following information is also critical if one is to approach the change agent task in a knowledgeable manner:

- Is there a formal statewide inter-agency agreement?
- Is the agreement merely paper or is it a working document?
- Has the statewide agreement led to the development of local working arrangements?
- Are their regional or other local agreements in effect?
- Are there any school districts in your state which are operating cooperative programs between vocational rehabilitation, special education and vocational education, JTPA, private sector employers or other community agencies?
- Have successful programs been identified?
- Can established agreements be adapted to meet your community needs?

A final factor is to familiarize yourself with local community resources; industry/education advisory councils, advocacy groups for disabled people, private service agencies, hospitals, nursing homes, group homes, independent living centers, sheltered workshops and employers who hire persons with disabilities.

As you develop an information base, you will probably gather allies and discover those that will be opponents. With the necessary information, it will become easier to build a team of professionals

interested in the concept of interagency collaboration and that are anxious to improve services to their clients/students.

A word of caution, inter-agency programs do not suddenly occur when several people agree that cooperation is desirable. Past failures in coordination have often resulted because of inadequate knowledge of the conditions that positively influence the collaborative planning process. The planning process leading to successful collaboration has been described in several excellent documents that outline the barriers and discuss methods for effective coordination. Because of the complexity of the subject and the competent manuals that already exist as practical step by step guides, the collaborative planning process will only be briefly reviewed.

Once the decision has been made to become a change agent, allies have been gathered and approval has been received from the agency head, then study carefully the steps necessary for a successful collaborative planning process. These necessary steps include:

- Have a plan.
- Start small.
- Proceed with order and method.
- Approach each step in a timely, persistent manner.
- Above all, communicate.

Systematic planning and communication are the keys to the process. The organization and structure of the service delivery system is to complex and entrenched to respond to a small committee's attempt to facilitate change. However, the behaviors of the people within the system can change in order to use the system more efficiently and effectively to serve persons with disabilities. The changing of behaviors often requires changing the attitudes of the people involved. Resistance to change on the part of a key individual can defeat any beginning collaboration. Therefore, collaboration must be voluntary, democratic and systematic. The process can benefit if it is assisted by an impartial facilitator. This person can encourage open communication and resolve problems without being perceived as having an investment in the outcome. As a change agent, you will need to be aware of all these complexities and be prepared to commit a considerable amount of time to the task. The rewards should exceed the disadvantages and the benefits for your client/student will be immeasurable.

Guidelines for the Total Team

Organize around the child, not around the training, title, role, and function of the staff. This shifts the loyalty of the team members from the department to the student and to the other members of the team. In this way, the child is no longer caught in the middle of interdepartmental politics but placed outside the administration

squarely in the middle of the direct service delivery system. The team welcomes parental participation, lawyers' advise, doctors' orders and input from others.

Minimize team membership in order to build effective relationships. A smaller group will reduce the number of relationships the client or other team members have to handle. It allows each member to know each other's turf better and to establish the golden commodity, "trust." Professionals, just like students, require trust to be build on good communication and consistency.

Teams must have responsibility and authority in order to function. Establishing responsibility is not so controversial for it covers the planning and implementation of programs and services. However, establishing authority extends the team's power to the areas of budget and personnel management which is usually reserved for administrators.

Preliminary Preparation: The efficiency and effectiveness of any group can be enhanced when individual members come to meetings adequately prepared to tackle the challenges before them. The task of preliminary preparation need not be a lengthy one, either. In some cases, it will require little more than a mental review of the group's previous activities and the objectives of the next meeting. In other cases, however, it may be necessary for group members to carefully review their notes, prepare and collect materials for presentation, and engage in other time-consuming activities, particularly as the group nears decision-making points.

Finding a Common Language: Communication has a role of fundamental importance to any group. However, within the context of multidisciplinary professional teams, a related area of concern becomes vitally important: the group's ability to find a common language which breaks through professional jargon. Unfortunately, all too often, professional jargon is one of the tools which is used to maintain these distinctions and in some cases "protect one's turf." In other cases, the jargon barrier simply makes it difficult for the group to work effectively, although no member of the group intentionally uses language barriers to minimize the group's effectiveness. Regardless of the circumstances, it is essential that individual group members make every effort to find a common basis for their communication. It is important that members try to learn the language of other group members while simultaneously reducing use of their own jargon whenever possible.

Establishing Goals: The development of explicit goals is important to problem-solving groups because it provides a blueprint for much of the work that will follow. As such, it sets the group on a course of action which helps control the natural tendency of any group to lose sight of its original purpose as new issues constantly arise. The development of clear cut goals, which are readily apparent and understood by all group members, also helps ensure better productivity within the group, increases accountability, and most

often, improved motivation and involvement on the part of individual members which have helped formulate the goals.

The degree of emphasis any single group places on each of these goal types will vary according to the unique needs of individual students. Some groups will be more concerned with immediate, pressing issues while other groups will be focusing primarily on long-term concerns. It is important to recognize, however, that group productivity can be enhanced if a number of immediate goals are established which will provide group members with an opportunity for more immediate achievements while working towards longer range goals.

An important distinction exists between group goals and individual group member's goals. This is especially true when individual goals are based on "hidden agendas." A group goal is one that is recognized by all members of the group and is to a large extent a combination of individual member goals. The personal goals of the individual group members can, of course, exist in homogeneity with the group's overall goals or, in some cases, they may be in direct conflict with the group's goals. In either case, however, other members of the group are aware to these individual goals and are able to address them openly. Hidden agendas are common to most groups; however, they can be quite counterproductive to the immediate and long-range success of the group. To counteract this problem, it is essential that open communication be the foundation of the group and that the group leader be sensitive to the development of what appear to be hidden agendas.

Understanding the Commitment

Not only is it important for group members to have a firm understanding of the goals of the group and the roles of individual members, it is also important that at the outset they recognize the commitment which will be required as a result of their participation. Failure to do this can have very detrimental effects on the group's overall progress. For example, an important member might have to resign from the group midway through its work as a result of not initially recognizing the time that would be involved. More often, however, the symptoms of failing to adequately inform members of the commitment required are manifested by growing dissatisfaction with the group's process, impulsive decision-making to simply get the job done as quickly as possible, or a pervasive decline in group morale and member participation.

To help ensure that these problems do not occur, it is important that the group leader(s) inform each of the participants of the commitment that is expected to be needed, based on the issues facing the group. This commitment should be defined in terms of the personal commitment that will be required of the individual, the time involved, and the resources that are likely to be expended as a result of participation in the group effort. This effort will undoubtedly reduce the group dropout rate and encourage more active participation. This, in turn, will benefit the student and also increase the likelihood that members will be willing to participate in similar activities in the future.

Action Plans

The focus of action plans is on identifying the specific methods, personnel, timelines and other concrete activities and factors that will take place as the group attempts to facilitate the student's progress. In this way, action plans are very similar to the development of Individual Education Plans or Individual Written Rehabilitation Plans.

In some cases, rather than developing a discrete action plan which solely focuses on aiding the student's transition from school to work, this plan will be incorporated within the overall IEP and IWRP. Action plans are particularly useful because they detail specific activities for which the group as a whole as well as individual members will be held accountable. As a result, well-designed action plans provide an effective basis for not only directing the group's problem-solving activities, they also are useful for evaluating the group's success in these efforts.

Guideline for the Individual

The total team uses the power established by each of its members inside and outside the direct functions of the group. Each person has unique power to contribute to the effective program that the team sets up. Likewise, each person has, within their agency, the power to make things happen for the client and student.

Getting on Board: Getting to know one another is a basic first step in group development. A common factor in many successful teams is the good relationship, both formal and informal, which exists among individual members. Frequently, the presenting agenda is more, "How can we work together to achieve our common goals?" rather than, "What is in it for me?" It is difficult to say which comes first, the collaborative attitude or the formal and informal relationships. In some cases, they may have evolved simultaneously. In any case, the different members of a team need to respect each other's professional expertise and understand the basic nature of the other's professional discipline. One cannot stress enough the importance of communication and joint problem solving activities in fostering this kind of cooperative knowledge. A counselor and a teacher sitting together over coffee, attempting to solve a student's dilemma, can frequently not only solve the dilemma but bring together the beginnings of a linkage that will better serve many students in the future.

In getting to know about other disciplines, it is also important to understand and know the legislation and regulations which govern their practice. At least, a cursory knowledge of the parameters of such legislation should be a must for all professionals who will be relating in collaborative efforts. Such knowledge enables each party to have a better grasp on what is law, what is procedure, and what is local practice. This further enables would-be collaborators to better understand the reward system, check and balances, and flexibility of each of the other disciplines. (See Tables in Chapter III for further explanation.)

Marketing Your Discipline: What do you have to offer to collaboration? Often professionals in disciplines sell themselves short for such collaborative efforts. The importance of consciously examining the skill base of one's profession, ones constituency base, ones legislative mandates, and the philosophical base of one's discipline cannot be over emphasized. A truthful examination of this will yield a large number of skills that are unique to one's field but which could be of benefit to other disciplines. For instance, the rehabilitation counselor should be skilled in the vocational implications of disabilities, understand job modification, vocational planning techniques, vocational adjustment counseling, have a strong tie with area labor market trends and area employers, along with numerous other specific attributes. Special education affords specific teaching techniques, and understanding of the educational limitations imposed by disabilities, the ability to design and implement an instructional program which can teach specific tasks, including prevocational and related work skills, and numerous other specific skill attributes.

In general, be realistic about your skills, time allocations, and commitments. Know your agency's parameters. After doing so, one can identify what one has to offer to a collaboration. In essence, one is identifying what one has to give to a potential collaborator in order to obtain some perceived gains.

Marketing Your Idea: As change agent, one of the most important things you will have to be is a convincing advocate for your ideas or programs. You will need to market your idea.

A program is useful only if it does what enough people want it to do. What seems to work will continue as long as people believe it works. Change in the way things are done will only occur when those responsible for running the show can find reasons for making changes.

- Know Your Product.

  Be sure that you have a firm grasp of the "change" that you want to make or the program you want to start. You should be able to explain this in very simple terms, to be followed by progressively more detail if necessary. While you want to concentrate on its strengths, be aware of the weaknesses.

  Realistically, one must have answers to all of the questions that will effect marketing the idea. This obviously includes budgets, the number of students and programmatic factors like timelines, goals, and outcomes.

- Research the Market.

  Come to grips with the needs, goals, pressures and perspectives of those that you expect to convince. No manager or colleague worth his/her salt is without ideas and expectations of their own about how things should be

done. They have very real limits and reasons for doing things in a certain manner. Market research has to be done before you present your idea/program. You must be prepared to deal with the following issues:

1. The program/policy/legal limits for what you expect to do.

2. What barriers are there to what you want to accomplish that are already in place?

3. What agreements have been made and how might they be used to accomplish the objectives?

4. What biases do colleagues or supervisors harbor?

5. How does your idea compliment, supplement or conflict with those of others?

6. What compromises might you have to make?

7. What are your practical limits?

- Test the Marketplace.

  Talk about your ideas or programs with the people you want to convince. If that is not feasible, talk with others that might know how they would react. Do this in an open, exploratory fashion. You are soliciting their ideas, examining your own perceptions and confirming the impressions your market research has indicated. Determine if your idea or program is viable at this time. The best ideas, program or changes have an ideal time for implementation. Some ideas must be shelved, not because they are Edsels, but because the times and the resources are simply not available.

- Prepare Your Campaign.

  1. Decide how to package your ideas.

  2. Identify others that will support the idea or program.

  3. Determine the steps necessary to make the presentation.

  4. Identify the best time and place for the presentation.

  5. Prepare alternatives which you could accept.

  6. Package your idea - prepare handouts, charts or whatever might display your idea in the most convincing light.

- Market Your Product.

  This is where your market research and planned campaign will pay-off. Given that you know your idea well enough to explain to everyone, you are aware of the opposition you will encounter, it is time to present the idea. Not everyone will be ready to accept your idea. Present your idea only in the depth that is required and stick to it. Maintain control of the situation and do not allow the idea to be distorted into something else. Deal directly with suggestions, opinions, limitations and alternatives. Avoid stressing your need. Focus and refocus on how this will improve things for the client/students, how it can improve the agency's effect, efficiency or image, stress how this will realistically impact on administrative and line-staff efforts, accurately counter faults that may be identified. The emphasis must be on showing how this idea will improve things for them (the administrators or whoever it is that you are trying to convince) or their clientele (their clients or students, other administrators, the legislators, the public, board members, auditors). Remember, they are going to have to do new things, do old things differently, convince others, provide money or other resources, alter their territories or even change their beliefs if they accept the idea of the program. Clarify the options and keep those that are mutually agreeable. Respect hidden agendas and, in particular, know your own. Negotiate and compromise.

  Stop your selling when the time is right. You can sell more with five, 60-second commercials in prime time than one fiveminute commercial during off hours. Stop selling the idea once they have told you that they expect to take delivery, but not before they have signed the contract. Redesign your sales campaign if they do not buy your program or stop selling until the market is ready. Drop the idea if the evidence and the reactions are too adverse.

- Service Your Product.

  Back up the product. A good idea likes the company of other good ideas. You will never retire after you have sold your first idea. Once you have presented, sold and negotiated the delivery of your idea or program, deliver, fulfill whatever charges or debits you have incurred. Follow through on the sale. You may improve your model (program or idea) and you will then need to convince people, again, that your newest changes are worth considering. Keep your customers informed of how well your product is working and keep tabs on where the model needs to be improved.

- Collaborative Concept.

  The concept of marketing an idea may be a new concept to many practitioners, but it is not beyond the reach of the dedicated individual that is intent on making a concept a realistic endeavor in their agency. The "idea" that was being promoted in the previous section was that of collaborative agreements. One must remember that many collaborative agreements throughout the country between special education, vocational education and vocational rehabilitation resulted from one person, in one discipline, calling another person, in another discipline, and stating, "Let's get together and see what we can do to further benefit this group of students with disabilities." A phone call may be the only step necessary to initiate the first phases of a collaborative program. There are many resources that aid the practitioner in the development of these agreements.

- Success.

  The ideas and concepts presented in this section are realistic and have met with success on many occasions. If we maintain a positive attitude and are willing to expend that extra energy, then we can also become successful change agents with a positive result called "collaborative agreements."

Summary

Listed below are some of the responsibilities and activities of powerful teams and individuals. The following allows democratic participatory management of the resources, information, and mobility affecting the team and its clients:

1. Meet regularly and keep track of what goes on. Then share the meeting with supervision.

2. Assess the needs of team members and the student and put them into team's plan.

3. Write down the team plans in terms of goals, needs, objectives and strategies.

4. Coordinate their implementation including their sequence.

5. Keep the family informed.

6. Schedule the work of team, including time off and share it with your supervisor.

7. Tie the team's efforts to a budget. Even if you have to invent one at first, share it with supervision.

8. Solve only the specific problems faced by the client or student and involve every single member in the solution. Don't decide until everyone agrees.

9. Evaluate your own effectiveness and share the evaluation with your supervisor.

10. Provide support, encouragement and guidance to the team members.

11. Provide regular information to the member about how well they are doing with the student.

12. Evaluate the member's performance formally and share it with supervision.

13. If there is a change in membership, participate in the selection of new team members.

14. Generate and discuss new ideas for improving the program for the student.

15. Consult with the supervisor in the evaluation of new ideas and proposals for change.

Chapter 6

ELEMENTS OF CHANGE

CHAPTER VI

ELEMENTS OF CHANGE

INTRODUCTION

The concept of interagency collaboration is not new. Efforts to collaborate in order to improve services to families and youth have been tried many times by agencies at federal, state and local levels. More often than not these attempts have been unsuccessful. It now appears that professionals can capitalize on knowledge gained from earlier mistakes, failures and successes. As a result, agencies can respond with new wisdom to the re-emphasis on interagency coordination. A number of factors set the current scene:

- Federal and state legislation affecting services to individuals with disabilities have been in effect long enough to make an impact and become integrated into the state and local service system.
- There is increased recognition of disorganized, fragmented and duplicative service delivery systems when they occur.
- Cuts in both federal and state budgets and a political climate of fiscal conservatism stimulates the need for interagency coordination in order to ensure that services to youth with disabilities are continued.

It is helpful when contemplating the start of an interagency effort to be aware of these factors and to understand past federal/state efforts and trends as they effect current practices.

Statutory mandates have given substantial impetus to the interagency movement (See Chapter II for explanation of the legislation.) In keeping with legislative enactments, in November 1978, the Commissioners of Education and Rehabilitation issued a joint memorandum to the states establishing a task force to develop further guidelines for collaborative planning and service delivery. As a result of this memorandum, a National Special Education-Vocational Education-Vocational Rehabilitation Workshop was convened on Cooperative Planning for the Handicapped. The memorandum and the workshop provided the stimulus for state agencies to follow the federal guidelines.

The majority of state level efforts toward interagency cooperation between education and vocational rehabilitation have focused on the development of formal interagency agreements. These efforts appear to be a direct outgrowth of the 1978 Joint Memorandum. By 1981, all but eight states had agreements in effect or under development. The great majority of these agreements were initiated in 1979 or 1980. Even though statewide and local programs resulted from these formal

interagency agreements, it is important to remember that many cooperative programs were in existence prior to this national effort to develop interagency agreements.

Categories of Interagency Coordination

Programs demonstrating practices in interagency coordination generally fall into four different categories: 1) state level cooperative agreements resulting in local agreements and the development of local cooperative programs; 2) vocational rehabilitation state agency involvement in local agreements and local programs; 3) local initiatives; 4) pilot programs which led to state level agreements and other local programs. The following brief explanation of the four categories is provided to give a sense of the types of interagency efforts which exist around the country.

The states of North Dakota, Maine, Vermont and Michigan developed state level interagency agreements to formalize relationships between vocational rehabilitation, vocational education and special education. The state level agreements were then disseminated through statewide interagency training efforts which provided the impetus for development of local agreements and local cooperative programs. State level commitment to coordination is usually represented by the assignment of a person(s) or an interagency committee whose responsibility is to ensure state support for local cooperative programs. Even with this state level support, the success of the local programs depends upon the commitment of the local agencies' administrators and line staff to the concept of interagency cooperation.

As expected, the endurance of local programs increases if located in areas with a relatively stable financial basis. For example, in North Dakota the act of cooperation has become systematized so that no extra funding is needed to maintain the interagency coordination activities. Location in a state with a strong state level commitment to interagency collaborating obviously increases local agencies' chances of obtaining support to start an interagency effort.

The states of Illinois, Missouri and South Carolina operate somewhat differently. The state vocational rehabilitation agency is primarily involved in developing local cooperative programs. In Illinois, for example, all interagency agreements are between the state vocational agency and the local school district or special education district. At the state level, special education supports the programs by allowing the special education districts to use state/federal funds for the cooperative efforts. However, there is no formal state level agreement.

The need to improve services for students with disabilities has long been identified by concerned professionals. In many local areas, the process of coordinating services between vocational rehabilitation and education agencies became a natural response to a perceived need. Studying these programs can provide valuable lessons for local level professionals desiring to implement cooperative activities. For exam-

ple, Utica, New York and Torrance, California operate local coordination programs which have achieved national recognition.

The Oklahoma and California interagency efforts provide excellent examples of states that started small with one pilot program, expanded, and then developed a state level interagency agreement. For example, in 1961 a work/study program was started in one Oklahoma high school with the aid of federal monies. The program concept spread and formal agreements were developed between the state vocational rehabilitation agency, the state special education division and the local school districts. A state level agreement was then developed to formalize the concept and to delineate specific responsibilities for the vocational rehabilitation, special education and vocational education agencies. Because the survival rate is low for many statewide cooperative programs, the Oklahoma program provides an interesting developmental study in longevity. In California, after a successful pilot program, 94-142 discretionary monies were used to foster vocational programming in 34 local school districts. A state level interagency agreement was then developed and local cooperative arrangements formalized.

Common Interagency Elements

The organizational structure and the various activities of interagency programs differ according to size and location. Nevertheless, there are elements of commonality among many programs which contribute to effective and lasting collaborative relationships. The following briefly analyzes these elements in order to assist in decisions regarding planning and development of collaborative relationships.

1. A primary philosophy which seems to provide stimulus for interagency coordination, as well as shaping service offerings, is career edcuation for special needs students. Career education can aid in their transition from school to work. This philosophy is evidenced in combinations of vocational and academic programming with work experience for students with disabilities. It represents a shift in policy for many high schools which have traditionally held that students with disabilities must reach certain levels of academic competence before vocational and/or career considerations be addressed.

2. Cooperative programs which attempt to provide comprehensive services have been forced to develop informal or formal agreements in order to resolve conflicts resulting from the federal and/or state laws. Written statements delineating roles and responsibilities, the sharing of resources and facilities, and the expenditure of dollars appears to be prerequisites for maintaining interagency programs. Coordination between two or three different agency professionals often occurs and can be effective. However, the evolution of these close working relationships into a comprehensive systematized program requires written clarification.

3. Collaboration can not be forced! All contributing parties must view collaboration as necessary in order to achieve successful program operation. If this does not occur, then conflicts and problems will erupt, demoralizing staff and seriously limiting program effectiveness. Requiring that all participating agencies contribute an equal share of the resources, funding, facilities and staff time can help instill a feeling of joint ownership and hence responsibility for the program.

4. The use of cross-agency inservice training can aid the development of interagency coordination. Inservice staff development training should foster communication. This will lead to an understanding of different agencies mandates and policies, along with an awareness of individual and job responsibilities. This can prevent fear from arising out of isolation and ignorance.

   Inservice training on interagency coordination is often considered irrelevant once a cooperative program has been instituted. Nevertheless, the continuation of interagency activities usually requires periodic inservice training sessions. These sessions can be important for sharing concerns and successes, resolving problems and discussing issues, and most importantly for revitalization.

5. As mentioned previously, of critical importance to maintaining a statewide cooperative program is the assignment of a person(s) or an interagency committee to oversee the local programs and provide support. Programs which are no longer operating on a statewide basis have collapsed for a variety of reasons which could have been minimized by a state level interagency coordinator(s) or committee. The responsibilities of the state level coordinator(s) or committee is to monitor the program in order to record successes and learn from mistakes, to provide the impetus for continuation, to support new initiatives, to help resolve financial and programmatic problems, and in general to represent state level commitment. The absence of such an entity to advocate for the program often allows for the cooperative efforts to be eliminated from state budgets or to die from lack of interest.

   Individual local programs must also retain a person(s) to be responsible for monitoring and advocating for the program. For those local programs which do not rely on state level support, the advocacy and monitoring responsibility is generally managed by the program administrator and/or an interagency committee. Often the person who acted as change agent for the program implementation, evolves into a permanent program advocate.

However, this is not necessary and sometimes it is desirable for this role to be transferred to another person or persons.

Present Practices/Trends

There is no single model of successful coordination between vocational rehabilitation, special education and vocational education. When considering different coordination practices, it is important to realize that it is impossible to completely transplant a model and expect it to work for every situation. The following list of program trends highlights various concepts, ideas and activities which have influenced the structure of current cooperative programs as well as providing direction for new initiatives.

1. Many cooperative programs include a work experience component.

   Provision of work experience for students with disabilities is the focal point of many cooperative programs. In these programs, students are placed in actual jobs in the community or in the school and receive a salary and/or school credit for their efforts. In the most well developed programs, work experience is part of a continuum of vocational services. In these programs, work experience is directly related to vocational education courses and adds an apprenticeship element not available in the vocational school program. Work experience also provides a method of tailoring the vocational program to the student's special needs. Thus, a work experience placement can be specially developed in light of a student's skills, behaviors, and aptitudes and similar considerations.

   In some programs, work experience provides a substitute for vocational programming which is not otherwise available. Even in these programs, however, student participation in work experience has generated needed services and stimulated interest in additional vocational programming. A most important aspect of work experience is that it provides some concrete successes for students who have negative attitudes about the academic program.

2. Schools are increasing their contacts with vocational rehabilitation.

   The extent to which vocational rehabilitation becomes involved with school age clients can be dependent upon the level of sophistication of the school districts's special education and vocational education offerings. Vocational rehabilitation can provide technical assistance concerning vocational and job preparation and can be a valuable resource in curriculum development. In school districts with a strong commitment to career

and/or vocational education, the vocational rehabilitation relationship centers on the provision of traditional rehabilitation services for the rehab-eligible client. The advantage is that vocational rehabilitation becomes involved with the client during the school years. This ensures service by vocational rehabilitation after graduation and helps prevent youth with disabilities from falling between the cracks of the service delivery system. Moreover, vocational preparation is enhanced and chances of obtaining competitive employment are increased.

3. Competency-based vocational education provides needed flexibility for training youth with disabilities.

The trend toward a competency-based vocational education and training curriculum provides the needed flexibility to increase the numbers of students with disabilities in vocational-technical education. An open-entry open-exit school program also increases a vocational technical school's ability and willingness to enroll students with disabilities. When the curriculum is designed to accommodate the learning needs and capabilities of all students and is associated closely with the competencies needed at various levels in specific occupations, youth with disabilities can benefit greatly. It is important to monitor and encourage vocational education efforts to adapt to a competency-based curriculum.

4. Many cooperative programs use interdisciplinary personnel.

Participation by students with disabilities in vocational education is also aided by the growing use of interdisciplinary personnel who serve as a link between the academic and vocational components. Many programs have developed positions of this type. The staff titles include Vocational Resources Educators (VRE's), Vocational Student Tutors, Student Services Coordinators, and Work Study Coordinators.

These staff members may perform a number of critical functions including:

- Developing vocational objectives for IEP's
- Providing information to special education instructors on the vocational classes
- Providing additional assistance to students with disabilities during vocational classes
- Help modify the vocational curriculum, where necessary

- Working with special education teachers to insure that vocational and academic programming are integrated

- Developing work experience or work/study jobs for students

There is general agreement that the support provided by these personnel is crucial if students with disabilities are to benefit from vocational education.

5. Supported work programs are being developed to meet the needs of students with severe disabilities.

Supported work programs provide a means for enabling persons with more severe disabilities such as the moderately mentally retarded and those with multiple disabilities, to enter and retain competitive employment. The supported work model utilizes a four-step process consisting of: 1) a job/client match, 2) job-site training and advocacy; 3) ongoing assessment, and 4) follow-up/-maintenance. It is characterized by initial intensive daily one to one contact between trainer and client and the gradual reduction of assistance as the client becomes more competent and independent. The successful results of applications of the model indicated that the supported work approach to employment services is a needed and effective alternative to traditional approaches for many persons with severe disabilities (Hill and Wehman, 1983: Wehman and Kregel, 1984).

Supported employment is a term being applied to an initiative to provide employment opportunities and related services to individuals whose physical or mental disabilities are so severe that they would be unable to work in a competitive environment without some special assistance.

In many applications, such as those described in the 1984 OSERS program initiative, supported employment provides an alternative to traditional day activity or sheltered workshop options. In other applications, including some similar to the supported work model, it can be a means to acquisition and retention of regular competitive employment. It may or may not be accompanied by ongoing support support services (e.g., attendent services, special transportation, etc).

The supported work service model has substantial potential impact on the availability of employment opportunities for persons with severe disabilities. As attitudes continue to change regarding the rights and abilities of persons with disabilities to work, it is anticipated that these service models will be utilized substantially.

6. Schools are increasing their involvement in vocational assessment activities.

Vocational assessment of students with disabilities has been an area of confusion and concern for many educational personnel. In many places, rehabilitation had been involved in this area to determine appropriate services for their clients. Now, with schools becoming more oriented to inclusion of vocational objectives in the IEP, there is a recognition of the need for assessments upon which to base these objectives. Schools have often found vocational evaluations by other agencies to be lengthy and complex. Thus, they are working to develop simple short-term vocational assessments for use with students. Vocational rehabilitation is working along with some schools in the development and interpretation of these assessments. Vocational rehabilitation, then, has access to evaluation results, has a better picture of incoming clients, and does not have to duplicate assessments already undertaken by the schools.

7. Schools are identifying SSI as a disincentive to the participation of students with handicaps.

A large number of professionals in special education and vocational education (as well as vocational rehabilitation) have stated that the SSI structure acts as a disincentive in their attempts to train and place youth with disabilities in employment. Parents and students fear the loss of benefits and may refuse vocational training opportunities as a result. Recent and anticipated modifications in SSI policies and procedures have alleviated some of these disincentives. If this is an issue, the reader is advised to contact the local Social Security office for current information.

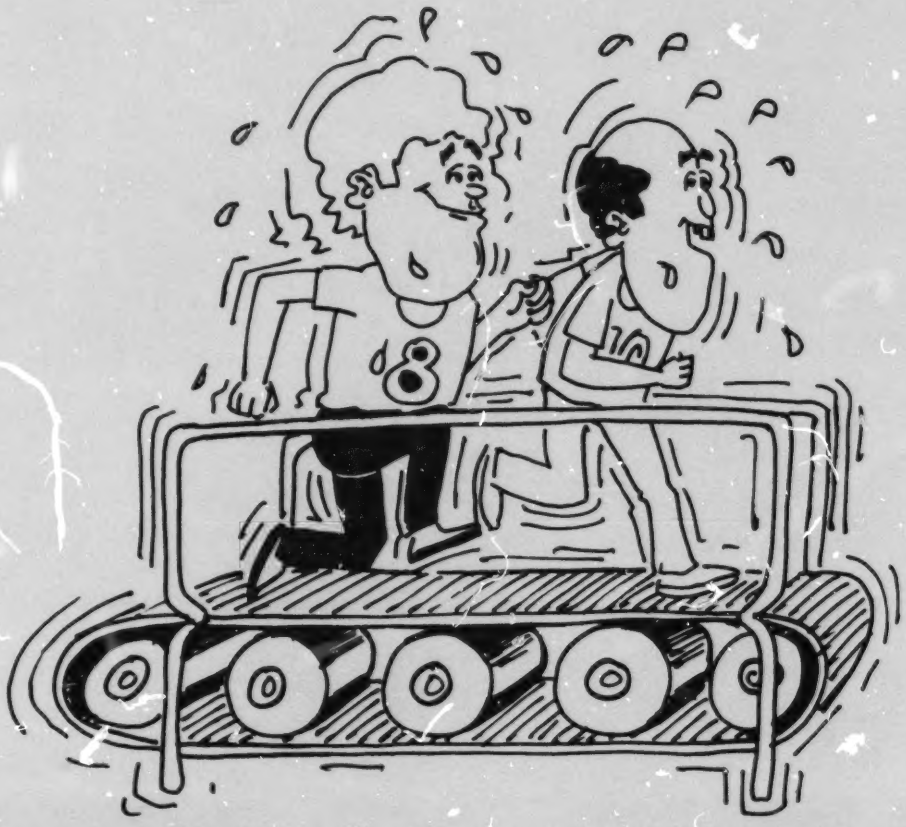
8. Schools fear that the "Back to Basics" movement may threaten vocational programming for students with disabilities.

A development which needs close monitoring is the "back to basics" movement in education. While there are many positive elements to this movement, it could have a deterimental effect on education programming for students with disabilities. The concentration on basic education skills and the raising of academic standards are important and needed steps. However, they can also cause conflict about the amount and level of vocational programming. As the standards are raised for receiving a high schoool diploma, there may be a movement toward eliminating work experience/work study programs or alternative vocational programs. These programs provide many students, particularly students with disabilities,

with the opportunity to complete high school. The provision of vocational education and alternative types of programs, and the strengthening of basic education programs must be recognized as not necessarily mutually exclusive.

Chapter 7

UNRESOLVED ISSUES



CHAPTER VII

UNRESOLVED ISSUES

OPEN ISSUES

The Prime Study Group that dealt with the School to Work Continuum represented each of the disciplines of special education, vocational education and vocational rehabilitation. The diversity of this study group not only allowed a broad view of this specific issue, it also identified a number of additional issues that did not fit within the context of this document. While these issues were not addressed, they were relevant and are included for the reader's consideration.

Additionally, there were several issues that did hinge directly on the school to work continuum but were too broad to be adequately dealt with in this examination. Readers are encouraged to review these issues and use them as a means to open discussion, review policy, improve practices or generally enhance the transition from school to work for youth with disabilites.

Issue

Sheltered workshops and rehabilitation facilities as sources of placement.

Comment

For those disabled youth and adolescents that find that their transition from school to work put them in a sheltered workshop or rehabilitation facility, the goal of competitive employment seemingly becomes more remote. In many respects, these are the individuals who fall into the cracks in the school to work transitional process. Recent studies (Wehman, 1983) have suggested that the reason for this lies not with the inability of the person in transition but with the programs and the funding criteria of the sheltered workshops and rehabilitation facilities. There is little financial incentive for the workshops or facilities to actively pursue placement for their clients. Their funding or payment, particularly from vocational rehabilitation, rewards activities and programs that don't necessarily lead to placement. For instance, vocational evaluation and work adjustment training are services that vocational rehabilitation (as well as others) purchase from workshops and facilities. While these services may be important in the preparation for the world of work, they are meaningless unless the individual being served actually obtains productive and profitable employment.

Issue

Developmental disabilities authorized funds and Medicaid.

Comment

A recent trend has been the funding of "Day Treatment" programs through Medicaid reimbursement. These programs are necessary for those clients who are not capable of participation in sheltered workshop or other vocational programs. These programs, however, have a financial reimbursement rate which is much more attractive than the cumulative subsidies available for sheltered workshop programs. As a result, it is possible that the day treatment versus sheltered workshop decision for certain borderline clients can be substantially influenced by the funding pattern. The very existence of the sheltered workshop option may be threatened in some areas.

Supplemental Security Income (SSI) and Social Security Disability Insurance have been seen by many clients as a reason not to move through the vocational continuum. The threat of loss of SSI and Medicaid outweights the potential benefits of competitive employment for some clients. The work related expenses and earned income deductions available for SSI clients are unknown commodities to many clients and professionals. Even if they were fully utilized, they would not adequately counteract the system imposed disinsentive.

Vocational rehabilitation and the Social Security Administration need to jointly examine their goals and procedures and make those modifications necessary to encourage persons with disabilities to prepare for, acquire, and retain competitive employment.

It is also recommended that reimbursement and cost patterns for sheltered work and day treatment be equalized in order to facilitate client movement based solely on capability.

Issue

Services for employers.

Comment

If we (rehabilitation providers) were to follow a marketing model, we would find that we are in the business of selling both products and services. Our products have generally been well defined. That is, they are "qualified" job ready men and women with disabilities that are desiring and capable of being productive and profitable employees. Unfortunately, there is less definition for those services to employers that hire disabled applicants. In fact, there are some sectors within vocational rehabilitation that suggest that the Rehabilitation Act doesn't define those specific services for employers, so, subsequently we should not be allocating resources and personel to them. On the other hand, others identify that the intent of the Rehabilitation Act is to move disabled persons into employment and

that this requires the "involvement with" and the provision of "services to" employers. This disparity may exist not only between states but even within a state vocational rehabilitation agency. This internal conflict is a major detriment to the entire rehabilitation process . . . to include the school to work transition. The Rehabilitation Service Administration needs to identify and promulgate those services to employers that are legitimatley part of the rehabilitation process.

Issue

Stipends and wages.

Comment

The use of work evaluation is an effective means of assisting youth with disabilities develop the skills necessary to achieve competitive employment. Private business is more willing to take the risk of hiring a person with disabilities even for on-the-job evaluation, if stipends and/or wages are paid from another source. Currently the sources for stipends and wages are limited, seriously effecting the use of on-the-job evaluation in vocational programming for youth with disabilities.

Issue

State Education Department certification requirements.

Comment

One purpose of this document is to foster increased options for service delivery to adolescents and young adults with disabling conditions.

Rehabilitation counselors, masters degree training programs accredited by the Council on Rehabilitation Education, are specifically prepared to assist persons with disabilities in preparation for and acquisition of employment. School districts and cooperatives sometimes desire to employ rehabilitation counselors to coordinate services which enable the student to successfully transition from school to work or appropriate postsecondary training. State education department certification requirements prevent the hiring of these specially trained professionals. Where they are hired, they have difficulty securing tenure. This results in a lack of a valuable service option.

The certification requirements were written at a time when most secondary age students with disabilities did not prepare for work during their years in the special education system. Rehabilitation counselors have been involved in the work preparation of adolescents with disabilities since 1954.

A simple correction of state Education department certification requirements will enable schools to choose this option of assisting students in transition. The change would have no financial burden to the state. As rehabilitation counseling has a national certifying body, the Commission on Rehabilitation Counselor Certification (CRCC) already tests and certifies rehabilitation counselors as meeting defined minimum standards of preparation.

Issue

P.L. 94-142 Regulations.

Comment

The regulations mention vocational education not only as a related services but also, as a potential part of special education. Although it is recognized that the list of related services is not all inclusive, it has in practice been used as limiting. If vocational rehabilitation counseling is to be part of the transition process and vocational rehabilitation is to assume ultimate responsibility as the student leaves school, then rehabilitation counseling needs to be listed as a related service in the regulation of P.L. 94-142.

Issue

JTPA and persons with disabilites/transitional students.

Comment

JPTA in its current implementation has shifted emphasis from work experience programs to training. The shift has made it unattractive for Service Data Areas to operate work experience programs with stipends or wages paid to participants.

Many youth with disabilities have difficulty in participating in traditional training programs. It has been shown that the optimal method of teaching job skills to persons with disabilities is through actual "hands on" experience in the real job setting.

The new JTPA implementation essentially limits participation by persons with disabilities by restricting work experience in favor of training. Regulation changes need to occur to allow use of outcome oriented work experience programs to serve persons with disabilities.

Issue

Rural concerns.

Comment

A number of factors concerning rural schools have been identified which create unique problems in planning and implementing the transition from school to work. Some factors which need to be considered and studied in the development of models to improve this transition include:

1. Rural areas are rapidly growing in population yet tax bases are not keeping pace.

2. Rural services cost more than similar services in urban areas because of extensive travel requirements and the scarcity of professional resources available.

3. Rural areas often have higher poverty levels than nonrural areas.

4. Rural areas frequently experience a higher percentage of handicapped children.

5. Employment opportunities are limited not only in number but in diversity.

Information disseminated by the American Council on Rural Special Education (ACRES) indicates that rural schools represent 67% of all schools in the nation. The unique factors indentified above must be included as factors in the development of models for the transition from school to work.

Issue

Creation of a new gap in education.

Comment

The current educational reform movement has the potential of creating a new gap in the school to work transition. Students who may be most readily affected by this movement include the lowest 15% of the nondisabled student population. Many of the disabled population (10%) will also be affected. Aspects of the educational reform movement that may contribute to this new gap are:

1. New Graduation Requirements:
   English - 4 years
   Math - 4 years
   Science - 4 years
   (plus humanities, social science, etc.)

These requirements may affect the above identified population in two ways:

a. These new requirements may drastically reduce students' freedom of choice. Due to logistics, they may not be able to select areas of particular interest and vocational importance.

b. Students' overall levels of academic performance (grade point averages) may be affected by new course requirements.

2. Competency Testing

Many states have or are currently adopting policies which will require students to pass a competency test in order to receive a diploma. These new requirements will create a new issue in many states. Schools are potentially going to have to award diplomas and certificates of attendance. Diplomas will take on a new value and employers may also begin to place an increased value on diplomas.

The combined effect of these aspects of the educational reform movement may create a vast new pool of high school dropouts.

DISCUSSION

Career Education - The career education movement of the 1970's appears to be ailing. On an individual basis, some local education agencies are still implementing career education programs. However, with the implementation of the Education and Improvement Act of 1981, the movement appears to have stalled at the state and federal levels. The consolidation of career education funds into Chapter 2 of this Act has made it possible for states to use their funds in whatever manner they deem appropriate.

Most of the students in our education systems could benefit from having an individualized career education plan. This plan could be developed in the eighth (8th) grade for grades 9-12 and postsecondary. Of course, it would have to be implemented, monitored, and revised as the student progressed through the educational system and into other education or rehabilitation service delivery systems.

Vocational Guidance - There appears to be a great need for vocational guidance services at the secondary and postsecondary levels. Vocational guidance practices, particularly for students with disabilities, need to be built upon a solid foundation in vocational education. Between grades 8 and 12, students must have the opportuntiy to explore various vocational opportunities. In order to fully implement vocational exploration strategies, vocational counselors have to be aware, educated, and trained in regards to occupational clusters and job opportunities in the world of work. In some states, less

than 10% of the guidance counselors have a background in vocational education or a vocational endorsement/certificate.

Competency-based Vocational Education (CBVE) - With the necessary resources and full implementation of CBVE, special needs students may eventually be served in a manner which will enable them to succeed at their maximum level of performance. Positive benefit outcomes of CBVE potentially include:

1. Placing students into programs at their individual level of performance.

2. Allowing students to progress through a modularized (units of instruction) program at their own pace.

3. Allowing students to enter or exit programs at any time. The academic and fiscal calendars will no longer control the learning process or environment.

4. Program evaluation models may be able to move beyond the traditional measure of program success. In addition to counting successful placements in related occupations, vocational programs will legitimately be able to measure and report the developmental growth of individual students.

5. Students will be able to obtain specialized training in a single competency area(s). For example, it will be possible to train a student to give engine tune-ups or to dismount and mount tires instead of having to learn to rebuild engines and transmissions.

Terminal vs. Transitional Sheltered Employment - There is a need for terminal sheltered employment for some vocational rehabilitation clients as well as for the developmentally disabled who do not initially qualify for vocational services, since they may not possess the potential for competitive employment. Criteria could possibly be established to identify clients who could continue to benefit from terminal sheltered employment. Also, regulations could be established regarding the retention of clients in transitional sheltered employment programs.

Vocational Education Reauthorization Act (VERA) - To reverse the trend toward deregulation of federal laws to allow states to have more flexibility in the use of federal funds. In the past, vague, permissive legislative language has not improved access to vocational programs and services, nor has it improved the services provided by vocational education to special populations.

APPENDIX

A

APPENDIX A

CONNECTICUT STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

INTRA-AGENCY AGREEMENT

Attachment A
Table of Services and Activities

Under Federal laws and regulations, the services or activities listed below can be provided (where indicated by an asterisk) either by DESE, (through local or special school districts), DVAE, DVTS, or by DVR.

Where it is indicated that more than one Division can provide or support the same service or activity, the primary responsibility for serving handicapped persons of school age until graduated or for those still enrolled through age 21 (whichever comes first) will be with DESE (a) or with DVTS if the student is enrolled at a Regional Vocational Technical School. The primary responsibility for serving other handicapped persons who have graduated, left voluntarily, or who are over 21 years of age and who are determined to be DVR eligible, will be with DVR.

A. Child/Client Outreach & Find Activities	(a) DESE	DVAE	DVTS	DVR
1. Public awareness	*			*
2. Professional awareness	*			*
3. Screening				
4. Individual screening (including outreach)	*		*	*
B. Assessment Activities				
1. Psychological	*		*	*
2. Social	*		*	*
3. Educational	*		*	*
4. Speech & Language	*		*	*
5. General medical examination, if necessary, to determine handicapping condition	*		*	*
6. Specialist medical examination	*		*	*
7. Vocational assessment (including interest & aptitude)	*	*	*	*

NOTE: (a) Services provided through Special Education or the local or special school district, additionally, DESE provides items A1 or A2 directly.

	DESE	DVAE	DVTS	DVR
C. Individual Program Planning:				
1. Individualized Education Program (IEP)	*		*	
2. Individualized Written Rehabilitation Program (IWRP)				*
D. Direct Services:				
1. Occupational skills instruction (including development of training sites; work study program)	*	*	*	*
2. On-The-Job training				*
3. Academic/vocational support instruc.	*	*	*	*
4. Academic adjustment counseling	*		*	*
5. Personal adjustment counseling	*		*	*
6. Vocational adjustment counseling	*	*	*	*
7. Medical services other than diag.				*
8. Mental therapy	(b)			*
9. Prosthetics, aid/devices - individually owned				*
10. Aids/devices, etc. for learning (including job trng. site accomo.)	*	*	*	*
11. Interpreter & reader services for learning (including training sites and home-bound study)	*	*	*	*
12. Other related services, OT, PT, speech correction, etc.	*		*	*
13. Job development and placement	(c)	*	(c)	*
14. Post-employment services				*
15. Occupational placement tools, equipment, etc. (individually owned)				*
16. Occupational tools and equipment, etc. (school owned)		*	*	
17. Special support staff, aids, tutors, paraprofessionals	(d)		(d)	*
18. Transportation	*			*
19. Subsistence while in training				*
E. Architectural Accessibility:				
1. Minor home modifications				*
2. Learning site accommodations	*	*		

NOTES: (b) Payment for (medical therapy will not be authorized in Conn.

(c) These services are not required in Conn.

(d) Although not required under the Fed. Spec. Ed. Law, certain of these services are provided by local and special school districts in Conn.

APPENDIX B

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

An Analysis of State-Level Interagency Agreements Regarding State-Local Linkages among Vocational Education, Special Education, and Vocational Rehabilitation. Laurie J. Batchelor. College of Education, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, May 1, 1981.

This study examines the extent to which state interagency agreements make provision for linkages with local agencies. It finds that the three major area of linkages are dissemination activities, in-service training, and technical assistance. However, while most states included state-local linkages in their agreements, few actually provided technical assistance or in-service training and most states had not even distributed the agreement to local agencies. The study concludes that more research is needed on the extent to which interagency activities have occurred locally.

Compendium of Interagency Agreements: Vocational Education, Special Education, and Vocational Rehabilitation. L. Allen Phelps. Leadership Training Institute/Vocational and Special Education College of Education, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, June, 1981.

This compendium presents the results of a national study on the status and content of interagency agreements between vocational rehabilitation, special education, and vocational education. It indicates that most states have developed interagency agreements and that most agreements are of recent vintage, with the majority having been entered into between 1979 and 1981. It also cites a need for more research on local impact of the agreements and on the effectiveness of interagency services.

Compendium of Practice Profiles, Comprehensive Services for Handicapped Children. Mid-Atlantic Regional Resource Center, New England Regional Resource Center. Unpublished, 1982.

The interagency section describes and analyzes successful interagency projects which improve services to handicapped youth. Five issues pertinent to collaboration are analyzed in regards to each of the projects.

Cooperative Arrangements and Interagency Linkages in Vocational Rehabilitation. Edward C. Baumheier, Henry W. Welch, Jeremy Mohr. Regional Rehabilitation Research Institute Center for Social Research and Development, Denver Research Institute, University of Denver, June, 1978.

This paper discusses interagency cooperation from a rehabilitation point of view. It discusses principles for planning cooperative programs and the barriers which must be addressed. The result will be

a proper mix of services in the proper sequence to assist clients in achieving rehabilitation goals.

"Cooperative Programming with the Schools: A Proposal." Journal of Rehabilitation. Raymond M. Cavanagh, Jr. January, February, and March, 1983.

The article reviews the legislation and reasons the school systems have problems in training handicapped individuals for employment. The author suggest that one way school systems can provide handicapped students with appropriate vocational training is to develop cooperative agreements with vocational rehabilitation to develop a comprehensive assessment and program for the students.

Creating Interagency Projects. Joseph Ringers, Jr. Community Collaborators, Charlottesville, Virginia. October, 1977.

This manual provides step by step methods for developing interagency cooperation efforts between schools and other community agencies. Basic principles and concepts are explored as well as the dynamics of interpersonal relationships.

"Interagency Collaboration: Driving and Restraining Forces." H. Wayne Johnson, John A. McLaughlin, Margaret Christensen. Exceptional Children. Vol. 48, No. 5, February, 1982.

This article presents information from the Virginia Polytechnic Institute project on interagency collaboration. It focuses generally on the provision of "related services" under P.L. 94-142.

Interagency Collaboration and Vocational Education for the Handicapped - A Staff Development Program. Handicapped Services Management, Department of Education, Special Education. The Massachusetts Department of Education (DOE), The Massachusetts Department of Manpower Development (DMD), The Massachusetts Rehabilitation Commission (MRC), 1982.

The project derived from the general understanding that the maximization of vocational education and training opportunities for handicapped youth is a goal shared by all three sponsoring agencies--DOE, DMD, and MRC--and that the shared client population would be better served if staff on all levels in each agency could more accurately understand the varied mandates, definitions, eligibility criteria, and service delivery structures governing the other agencies. Hence, training materials were developed to incorporate the following topics: agencies, their components and structures; clients, their characteristics and needs; laws and governance; program models and agreements; attitudes; and industry-agency relations.

Interagency Collaboration on Full Services for Handicapped Children and Youth. James E. Crosson, Ray Feltner, Linda Foley, et al. Regional Resource Center Task Force on Interagency Collaboration, DHEW, OE, BEH, August, 1979.

a. A Primer

This document introducers a five-volume technical assistance package on interagency collaboration. It also lists outcomes of collaboration in terms of individualized service planning, organization and delivery of service, program monitoring and reporting, and program planning and budgeting.

b. Volume I - A Guide to State-Level Planning and Development

This volume sets out a process outline with ten strategies for interagency planning at the state level. It then provides detailed listing of the tasks necessary to accomplish each strategy. It includes, as an appendix, A Primer of Interagency Agreements by Robert H. Audette. This paper classifies interagency agreements under the following categories--program standards, resource allocation, and process and activity.

c. Volume II - A Guide to Local Collaboration

This volume presents the strategies discussed in Volume I in a modified form to assist local providers in collaborating with each other.

d. Volume III - A Guide to Federal Policies and Agreements Regarding Health, Education, and Social Service Programs

This volume presents an anlaysis of eight federal programs which provide services for handicapped children--94-142, Maternal and Child Health, Crippled Children, SSI, EPSDT, Development Disabilities, Head Start, and Social Services.

e. Volume IV - A Guide to Federal Policies and Agreemenmts Regarding Vocationally-Oriented Education and Rehabilitation Programs

This volume analyzes five federal programs which are potential sources of vocational services for disabled youth--94-142, Vocational Education, Vocational Rehabilitation, Developmental Disabilities, and CETA. It provides legislative overviews and service descriptions. Processes for identification, assessment, plan development, placement, plan implementation, and plan review are outlined. Provisions for material support and personal support are also noted.

f. Volume V - Annotated Bibliography and Glossary of Acronyms and Terms

This volume presents a 1978 bibliography of literature on interagency collaboration and a basic glossary of terms used in human service programs.

Interagency Cooperation and Agreements. Policy Paper Services: Document 4. J.P. Greenan, (ed), Leadership Training Institute/Vocational and Special Education College of Education, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, May, 1980.

The Interagency Cooperation and Agreements Policy Paper Series identifies and addresses several of the issues that relate to developing effective cooperation and agreements among agencies. The topics and issues that are addressed include: State Planning or Interagency Cooperation; Training Educational Personnel to Implement Effective Interagency Cooperation and Agreements for Serving Handicapped Learners; Preparing Vocational and Special Education Personnel for Working with Students who have Special Needs; Effective Linkages for Interagency Cooperation.

Interagency Relationships. Nancy C. Cock. Mid-Atlantic Center for Community Education, School of Education, University of Virginia, 1979.

This study examines the historical basis and current status of interagency relationships related to community education. It provides general guidelines for entering into any collaborative effort and it provides a detailed listing of barriers to interagency partnerships.

"Interagency Services: A New Era for an Old Idea." M. C. Martinson. Exceptional Children, Vol. 48, No. 5, February, 1982.

This article presents a theoretical discussion of interagency coordination. It oulines several models of interorganizational relations and it provides a recommended model for interagency planning. It also discusses basic problems in collaboration and research and development needs.

The Interdependent Community: Collaborative Planning for Handicapped Youth--Leaders Handbook. Paul Ferrini, Bradford Matthews, June Foster, Jean Workman. TERC, Cambridge, Massachusetts, May, 1980.

This handbook presents a "voluntary, democratic process" by which organizations can work together to improve career-related opportunities for handicapped youth. It includes exercises for joint planning and development of strategies. It also discusses resources various types of agencies can contribute to collaboration and the possible benefits they might realize.

"Solving Problems through Cooperation." Jan M. Baxter. Exceptional Children, Vol. 48, No. 5, February, 1982.

This article presents a general discussion of interagency planning and cooperation. It lists some general methods for coordination and it highlights the Michigan cooperative effort between Special Education, Vocational Education, and Vocational Rehabilitation.

"Special Education--Vocational Rehabilitation, Let's Get the Act Together." Joseph Fenton, Robert A. Keller, Jr. American Rehabilitation, May - June, 1981.

The article discusses the benefits of interagency collaboration and strategies for assuring successful implementation of interagency agreements.

Special Ideas for Educating Handicapped Children and Youth. "Interagency Collaboration: Sharing a Commitment," #III 1. Mid-Atlantic Regional Resource Center. Published by: Upper Midwest Regional Resource Center.

This bulletin discusses ideas and offers resources on how to overcome difficulties in starting interagency collaboration.

Substudy on Handicapped. Dick Carlson, Nina Bar-Droma. August 9, 1979.

This paper presents a set of questions for studying collaborative efforts and agreements related to vocational services for handicapped persons. It suggests several approaches for determining the effectiveness of agreements including an examination of whether local activity has increased.

Vocational education models for Linking Agencies Serving the Handicapped, "Handbook on Developing Effective Linking Strategies."

The purpose of the Handbook is to assist state and local level personnel to develop effective linking strategies which will help meet the vocational education needs of handicapped students. How to develop, implement and evaluate interagency linkages were the major issues discussed.

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